An Advisory Committee Statement (ACS) National Advisory Committee on Immunization (NACI)‡

Literature Review on Influenza Vaccination in Healthy 5-18-Year-Olds

PROTECTING CANADIANS FROM ILLNESS

Canada

TO PROMOTE AND PROTECT THE HEALTH OF CANADIANS THROUGH LEADERSHIP, PARTNERSHIP, INNOVATION AND ACTION IN PUBLIC HEALTH.
—Public Health Agency of Canada

PREAMBLE

The National Advisory Committee on Immunization (NACI) provides the Public Health Agency of Canada (hereafter referred to as the Agency) with ongoing and timely medical, scientific, and public health advice relating to immunization. The Agency acknowledges that the advice and recommendations set out in this statement are based upon the best current available scientific knowledge and is disseminating this document for information purposes. People administering the vaccine should also be aware of the contents of the relevant product monograph(s). Recommendations for use and other information set out herein may differ from that set out in the product monograph(s) of the Canadian manufacturer(s) of the vaccine(s). Manufacturer(s) have sought approval of the vaccine(s) and provided evidence as to its safety and efficacy only when it is used in accordance with the product monographs. NACI members and liaison members conduct themselves within the context of the Agency's Policy on Conflict of Interest, including yearly declaration of potential conflict of interest.

TABLE OF CONTENT

I. INTRODUCTION

Annual influenza vaccination is used as a preventative public health intervention to control both the spread of and complications associated with influenza infections. The Public Health Agency of Canada (the Agency) releases an annual evidence-based statement on the use of seasonal influenza vaccinations in Canada. The statement, prepared by the National Advisory Committee on Immunization (NACI) with the support of the Agency, makes recommendations that are evidence-based, i.e. are based on a systematic review of the current evidence of influenza vaccination. To inform future seasonal influenza vaccine statements, there is a need to assess the literature on specific population subgroups defined by age and assessed across several topic areas, including safety and adverse events, immunogenicity, efficacy and effectiveness. The objective of the current literature review was to review, assess, and synthesize literature on influenza vaccination among children and adolescents 5 to 18 years of age to inform the Agency and the NACI Influenza Working Group (IWG) on the question of whether NACI should recommend the inclusion of healthy children 5-18 years of age in the list of intended recipients for the annual influenza vaccine. Children with chronic conditions are already part of the current list of intended recipients and were therefore not subject to this review.

The literature search was conducted using the Medline, ISI and EMBASE databases and included literature in these databases on September 10, 2012 and dating back to an earliest publication date of January 1, 2001. Articles selected for review included studies based on seasonal trivalent inactivated and live-attenuated influenza vaccines approved for use in Canada in this age group. Articles based on studies of other types of vaccines (such as non-seasonal types of influenza vaccine or vaccines used elsewhere but not approved in Canada for use in children at the time of the literature search) were not included as part of the evidence review. Although the age range included in the studies reviewed may have extended beyond the 5 to 18-year-old age group, studies included either had a large proportion of participants in the target age range or authors provided a sub-group analysis of participants that were within the target age group.

This report will discuss the evidence reviewed, including influenza vaccine efficacy, effectiveness, immunogenicity, and safety.

II. METHODS

Methodology followed the standard NACI methods outlined in, *Evidence-based recommendations for immunization – Methods of the National Advisory Committee on Immunization CCDR 2009*. During Phase 1 of the review, the literature search strategy was developed in consultation with the Agency and the IWG. Topic areas included: influenza vaccine efficacy/effectiveness, immunogenicity, and safety among 5-18-year-olds. The search terms and strategy used for the three databases searched (ISI Web of Science, EMBASE, and Ovid Medline) are presented in Appendix A. Briefly, the strategy included the following criteria:

- Children 5-18 years of age
- Seasonal influenza vaccination
- Outcomes: efficacy/effectiveness (confirmed influenza, ILI, absenteeism, medical visits, etc.), immunogenicity, safety

The search covered literature published in English or French, from January 1, 2001 to the date of search (September 10 or 11, 2012, depending on the database) and yielded 2175 articles, following deduplication. Progressive screening of the returns through levels of increasing detail (from titles, to abstracts, to full texts) finally yielded 102 articles retained for the review. Articles not retained (n=2073) were screened out of the review based on conditions specified by the Agency and IWG, including:

- Did not meet conditions for inclusion
- Unrelated to influenza vaccination or influenza-related outcomes in the population of interest
- Not seasonal vaccine-related (e.g. 2009 pandemic H1N1, H5N1 vaccines)
- Vaccine studied was not approved for use in children in Canada (e.g. virosomal, etc [i].)
- Included insufficient or undescribed proportion of 5-18-year-old subjects
- Focus on children with chronic health conditions[ii]
- Focus on strategies other than vaccination (e.g. antiviral use)
- Cost-effectiveness studies
- Case studies
- Focus on egg-allergy
- Non-primary research (reviews, meta-analyses, recommendations etc.; these were screened out for purposes of data reporting, but may have been used for cross-referencing, background information, etc.)
- Following high-level screening, the list was cross-referenced with key authoritative literature (recent reviews and meta-analyses, key articles, 2010 ACIP recommendations, etc.) and reviewed by the IWG chair. Very few articles were added that the search had not already identified, validating the search strategy. Yields from the search and refinement were as below: 2784 returns—609 duplicates removed
- 2175 titles screened—1401 removed
- 774 abstracts screened-454 removed

A provisional list of 320 articles was submitted to the Agency/IWG, some on topics of uncertain interest for the review scope. Following feedback from the Agency/IWG chair regarding refinement criteria, a further 196 articles were removed, after which:

- A high level interim report was submitted on those remaining 124 articles
- Following a full-depth article review- a further 22 articles were removed
- The final number included in tables or text was 102 articles
- Included in evidence tables were 53 articles.

Evidence tables are shown in Section V, following textual descriptions.

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[i] Guidelines that were followed in the decision process regarding inclusion/exclusion of particular vaccines or vaccine types are attached in Appendix B.
[ii] Guidelines that were followed in the decision process regarding inclusion/exclusion of studies based on children's health status are attached in Appendix C.

III. RESULTS

III.1 Burden of disease

The burden of influenza infection, illness and complications is significant in children. Children under the age of five experience higher rates of influenza-attributable morbidity and mortality than healthy children aged 5-18 years (65% of child influenza-attributed hospitalizations versus 35%, respectively [IMPACT, 2011-2012 season]).

Influenza surveillance in Canada is conducted through the FluWatch program, which is a national network of laboratories, hospitals, sentinel physicians, and provincial and territorial ministries of health. One of their sources of data is the Immunization Monitoring Program ACTive (IMPACT) network. IMPACT is a network of paediatric tertiary care hospitals which includes 12 centres in eight provinces representing approximately 90% of all tertiary care beds in the country. The FluWatch program receives surveillance information on influenza-associated hospitalizations in children and adolescents ≤16 years of age from IMPACT. Children 5-16 years of age represented between 24% and 51% of the total influenza-associated hospitalizations reported by IMPACT sites between the 2004-2005 and 2011-2012 influenza seasons. An average of 21% (range 11-30%) of influenza-associated hospitalizations in children 5-16 years of age were healthy children, i.e. those without any underlying medical condition. The high percentage seen in 2009-2010 (51%) was mainly due to H1N1 infections.

III.1.1. Outpatient visits

The incidence of outpatient visits related to influenza in children 6 months to 17 years of age between October 1994 and September 2000 was examined by O'Brien et al. [1]. Outpatient visits for acute respiratory disease were defined using ICD-9 codes, including those for influenza, acute respiratory diseases, and pneumonia. Among healthy children 5 to 17 years of age, the rate of outpatient visits for acute respiratory diseases during periods in which influenza predominated over other respiratory diseases was 6.7 (95% CI [6.6, 6.9]) per 100 person-months. The rate of outpatient visits that could be attributable to influenza compared with the rate during the summer baseline period was 3.6 (3.4 to 3.7) per 100 person-months. This difference per 100 person-months increased to 7.8 (95% CI [7.1, 8.5]) in high-risk children 5 to 17 years of age.

Age-related trends in influenza medical visits, including general practice services of regional examinations, consultations, complete examinations, home visits and emergency visits, between 1998 and 2004 was examined in British Columbia by Sebastian et al. [2]. They found that older school-aged children (10 to 19 years of age) had the lowest peak rates of influenza-related medical visits (0.3 [0.2, 0.3] per 1000 people) compared to all other age groups, especially to younger children. The rate of influenza medical visits in 5 to 9-year-olds was 1.3 (0.9, 1.7) per 1000 people, 1.8 (1.3, 2.4) in 2 to 4-year-olds, and 2.1 (1.6, 2.6) in 6-23 month olds.

The European Paediatric Influenza Analysis (EPIA) project was created in 2008 to collect, analyse and present paediatric influenza burden data in countries across Europe. Paget et al.[3] presented preliminary results by country (England, Italy, The Netherlands, and Spain) and age group (0 to 4 years, 5 to 14 years). The total burden of influenza-like illness (ILI) varied widely between countries, with seasonal averages between 0.4% and 18% of the population studied.

With the exception of Spain, data from all of the countries showed a higher incidence of influenza-attributable doctor consultations in younger children (0 to 4 years) as compared to older children. It should be noted that there are international differences in case definitions and that ILI symptoms are subjective.

III.1.2 Hospitalizations

Hospitalization rates for children 5-18 years of age were reviewed in 11 studies using both prospective and retrospective designs. Eight studies evaluated cases with virologically confirmed influenza, while three studies assessed non-confirmed cases that may be attributable to influenza. From the 2004-2005 to 2011-2012 influenza seasons, surveillance data for children 5-16 years of age from IMPACT was also reviewed.

One retrospective cohort study evaluated hospitalized patients ≤18 years of age with a laboratory confirmed influenza infection[4]. The incidence of hospitalization declined as a child's age increased. Rates of hospitalization were estimated to be 19.8 per 100,000 (95% CI [4.1, 57.9]) in children aged 5 to <6 years, 6.9 per 100,000 (95% CI [0.2, 38.7]) in children aged 6 to <7 years, and 6.3 per 100,000 (95% CI [3.0, 12.4]) in children aged 7 to<15 years. There was insufficient data to estimate incidence in children 15 to ≤18 years of age.

Hite et al. [5] collected demographic and clinical data retrospectively from medical chart reviews from a paediatric hospital. In order to be eligible for inclusion, patients had to be ≤18 years of age and have had a laboratory confirmed influenza infection. The hospitalization rates for influenza A and B were estimated to be 8 per 10,000 in children less than 1 year, 1.8 per 10,000 in children 1 to 4 years of age, 1.6 per 10,000 in children 5 to 8 years of age, 1 per 10,000 in children 10 to 14 years of age, and 0.2 per 10,000 in children 15 to 19 years of age. The same declining incidence trend with increased age was observed when analyzing data for influenza A only. When analyzing data for influenza B only, the hospitalization rate was highest in children less than 1 year (2.8 per 10,000), and then in children 5 to 8 years (1 per 10,000), and then children 10 to 14 years of age (0.9 per 10,000).

Louie et al.[6] analyzed surveillance data on 160 children less than 18 years of age who were hospitalized in paediatric intensive care units (ICUs) or dying in hospital, with laboratory-confirmed influenza infection between December 2004 and May 2005. Of the proportion of patients hospitalized for severe paediatric influenza, 82% were under 5 years of age. Fifty-three percent of the study participants had an underlying medical condition.

Among children and adolescents <21 years of age, Coffin et al.[7] found an incidence of lab-confirmed influenza related hospitalizations (n=231) of 6.8 per 10,000 child-years (95% CI [2.6, 14.4]) among their urban neighbourhood cohort. The rate was 1.9 per 10,000 child-years (95% CI [0.2, 7.2]) for children aged 5 to 11 years, and 1.8 per 10,000 child-years (95% CI [0.2, 7.2]) for children aged 12 to 17 years. Of the total sample, 77% were <5 years of age and 49% had a high-risk co-morbid condition.

Using 2003/2004 hospitalization data from IMPACT, Moore et al. [8] identified and reviewed the medical charts of children aged 5 days to 18 years with a confirmed influenza diagnosis. Of these participants, 57% were under the age of two years, and 84% were under the age of five years. ICU admission was higher in children aged ≥5 years than in younger children (21.9% versus 9.9%; OR: 2.55 (95% CI [1.32, 4.90]), and being ≥5 years was an independent risk factor

for ICU admission after adjustment for underlying illness. Children ≥5 years also required mechanical ventilation more frequently than younger children (12.2% versus 5.0%; OR: 2.66, (95% CI [1.11, 6.24]).

A second Canadian study analyzed laboratory-confirmed influenza hospitalizations in 2004/2005 among children aged up to 16 years. Cases were identified using IMPACT and the Toronto Invasive Bacterial Disease Network[9]. Of the 184 children hospitalized, 132 (72%) were children <5 years of age, 35 (19%) were children 5 to 9 years of age, and 17 (9%) were children 10 to 16 years of age. The hospitalization rate was 0.25 per 1000 overall, although it was highest among those <2 years of age at 0.81 per 1000.

Sakkou et al.[10] conducted a prospective study over two influenza seasons (2002-2003, 2004-2005) at a children's hospital in Athens, Greece. Children aged 6 months to 13 years (n=161) were recruited with laboratory confirmed influenza infections (H1N1, H3N2, B). Their study found that the estimated hospitalization per 10,000 children was highest in those under 5 years of age, and decreased with age. These findings were consistent over both seasons. During the 2002-2003 season, the estimated rate of hospitalizations per 10,000 children was 13.3 for those 5 to <10 years, and 6.5 for those 10 to < 14 years. In 2004-2005 the rate of hospitalizations for influenza in those 5 to <10 years of age was 8.4 per 10,000 children, and the rate in 10 to < 14-year-olds was 7 per 10,000.

A retrospective study conducted in Finland, spanning 16 years of paediatric influenza hospitalizations, yielded a study sample of 401 children ≤16 years of age [11]. Similar to trends found in other studies, rates of hospitalization were by far highest in children <6 months of age (276/100,000) and was 36 per 100,000 in the entire group of children 0 to 16 years. Children 3 to < 7 years of age represented 17.7% of those hospitalized over the 16 year study period, and children 7 to 16 years of age represented 18.2% of the sample. Those under three years represented 64.1% of children hospitalized for influenza. The presence of an underlying medical condition was lowest in infants < 6 months of age (10.2%) and highest in children 7 to 16 years of age (45.2%).

Three studies assessed cases in which influenza was not virologically confirmed. O'Brien et al. [1] completed a retrospective analysis of influenza-attributed hospitalizations of children and adolescents 6 months to 17 years. Collected data was from health information databases from the years 1994-2000. The estimated hospitalization rate for healthy children 5 to 17 years of age, during the defined seasonal periods, was lower than that of the summer baseline period (-0.40 per 10,000 person-months (95% CI [-1.0, 0])). The estimated hospitalization rate for healthy children 24-59 months of age was 5.7 per 10,000 person-months, (95% CI [3.0, 9.0]) and that rate for children 6 to 23 months was (10.4 per 10,000 person-months (95% CI [6.0, 17.0]).

Izurieta et al. [12] estimated the influenza hospitalization rate for children and adolescents <18 years of age from 1992 to 1997 using data from the Kaiser Permanente Medical Care Program of Northern California and the Group Health Cooperative of Puget Sound, Seattle. The Northern California hospitalization rate for acute respiratory disease, during periods when influenza virus predominated and for children without high-risk conditions, was 31 per 100,000 person-months (95% CI [197, 271]) for children <2 years of age, 53 per 100,000 person-months (95% CI [38, 72]) for those 2 to 4 years of age and 19 per 100,000 person-months (95% CI [15, 24]) for those 5 to 17 years of age. The hospitalization rate for acute respiratory disease in Puget Sound, Seattle, during periods when influenza virus predominated, for children without high-risk

conditions, was 193 per 100,000 person-months (95% CI [154, 238]) for children <2 years of age, 21 per 100,000 (95% CI [11, 38]) for those 2 to 4 years of age, and 16 per 100,000 (95% CI [12, 22]) for those 5 to 17 years of age.

Neuzil et al. [13] conducted a retrospective cohort study of healthy children and adolescents <15 years of age using data collected from 1973 to 1999. The standardized rate of influenza-attributable cardiopulmonary hospitalizations for children 3 to 5 years of age was estimated to be 43 per 10,000 person years, 79 per 10,000 for children 1 to 3 years of age and 22 per 10,000 for children 5 to 15 years of age. Similar to the other studies, rates of hospitalization were highest in the <6 months age group and it declined with age.

III.1.3 IMPACT

The Immunization Monitoring Program ACTive (IMPACT) is a paediatric hospital surveillance network that collects data on adverse events following immunization, vaccine failures and selected infectious diseases that are, or will be, vaccine preventable. Surveillance information is collected in 12 centres across Canada for children and adolescents ≤16 years of age. The proportion of children 5-16 years of age hospitalized for influenza infections, out of all children (0 to 16 years of age) hospitalized for influenza, ranged between 24% and 51%, depending on the season (Table A). During the 2009-10 influenza season, 91% and 98% of the influenza cases in 5-16-year-olds were attributed to the H1N1 virus (wave 1 and 2 respectively).

Table A. MPACT surveillance data of hospitalized influenza cases (and percent of total child hospitalizations for influenza) from the 2004-2005 to 2011-2012 seasons

Age Group	2004-05	2005-06	2006-07	2007-08	2008-09	2009-10 (Wave 1)	2009-10 (Wave 2)	2010-11	2011-12
0-4 years	293 (74.9%)	246 (65.8)	279 (75.3)	349 (70.5)	446 (58.3%)	187 (48.6%)	496 (52.3%)	490 (73.1)	381 (65.6%)
5-9 years	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	111 (16.5%)	144 (24.4%)
10-16 years	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	70 (10.4%)	64 (10.9%)
5-16 years	98 (25.1%)	128 (34.2%)	91 (24.6)	148 (29.8%)	321 (41.9)	198 (51.4%)	452 (47.7%)	181 (26.9%)	208 (35.3%)

II.1.4 Mortality

The number of influenza-attributable deaths is difficult to estimate directly because influenza infections are not typically confirmed virologically, or specified on hospital discharge forms or death certificates. Mortality rates were reported in three articles on children 5 to 18 years of age. Overall, death due to influenza is not a common occurrence in the 5 to 18 years age group.

Bhat et al.[14] conducted a country-wide surveillance study in the United States of children's deaths with a laboratory confirmed influenza-virus infection. The overall influenza mortality rate for those 0 to 17 years of age was 0.21 per 100,000 children. Mortality was highest in those less than 6 months of age and generally declined with age (p>.001 for trend). In children 5 to 10 and

11 to 17 years of age, the mortality rate was estimated to be 0.11 per 100,000. Of the 153 cases for which data were reported, 33% had a high-risk co-morbid condition as defined by the Advisory Committee on Immunization Practices.

Two descriptive studies reported a small number of influenza-associated deaths. In a study of severe laboratory confirmed paediatric influenza, Louie et al. [6] identified two deaths among children aged 5 to 11 years (n=40) and two deaths among children aged 12 to 17 years (n=13) who were either hospitalized in the paediatric ICU or died in the hospital. Moore et al. [8] conducted a study on surveillance data collected by IMPACT for the 2003/2004 influenza season. Of 505 children, only three deaths occurred, of which two were in children ≥5 years of age. One was a healthy seven-year-old, and the other an adolescent with congenital heart disease.

During the 2006-2007 influenza season in the US, 68 influenza attributable deaths were reported to the CDC among those <18 years of age. Of these, 10 were among children <6 months of age, 10 were among children 6 to 23 months of age, nine were among children 2 to 4 years of age, and 39 were among children 5 to 17 years of age.

III.I.5   Burden of disease summary

Children < 5 years of age experience higher rates of morbidity and mortality as compared to healthy children aged 5-18 years (65% of child influenza-attributed hospitalizations versus 35%, respectively [IMPACT, 2011-2012 season]). Older children tend to have fewer influenza-related outpatient visits than younger children (<5 years versus >5 years), and the incidence of hospitalization tends to decline as a child's age increases as well. Death due to influenza is not a common occurrence in the 5-18 years of age group.

III.2   Efficacy/Effectiveness

The efficacy and effectiveness of influenza vaccines in 5-18-year-olds varied between studies, as did study conditions such as circulating and vaccine influenza strains and their match in the various communities, the outcome being measured, methods used to assess it, study designs and settings, etc. Vaccine efficacy and effectiveness studies evaluated outcomes such as incidence of laboratory-confirmed influenza, medically attended acute respiratory illness, self-reported ILI, hospitalizations, emergency department (ED) or other healthcare use related to respiratory illness, and absenteeism.

In addition to the question of efficacy/effectiveness of influenza vaccines in preventing these outcomes in vaccine recipients themselves, several studies have addressed the potential for herd-immunity effects, or 'indirect effectiveness' of the vaccination of schoolchildren on others. For clarity, direct and indirect efficacy/effectiveness are reviewed separately. Various understandings/usages of the terms 'direct' and 'indirect' seem evident in the literature. For the purposes of this report the term 'direct' is generally used when the subjects on whom the outcome measure is assessed are of the same age group as the age group of the vaccinees in the study. In this report, when 'mixed (direct and indirect)' effectiveness is described, the investigators included the vaccinees together with other-aged community or family members, in a single outcome measure. Indirect effectiveness is generally used in this report to describe effects of vaccination of one age group on different aged community members who were not

recipients of the study vaccine. Where authors of the reviewed articles used the terms direct and indirect differently, the author's terminology was maintained in the evidence table to facilitate a reader's cross-referencing of evidence tables with the original articles, if applicable.

III.2.1 Trivalent inactivated influenza vaccines (TIV)

Table 1 (efficacy/effectiveness of TIV) summarizes evidence from four randomized controlled trials (RCTs), six cohort studies, three case-control studies, and five time-series and/or ecological studies. Eleven of these evaluated laboratory-confirmed influenza as an outcome. The vaccine efficacy (VE) or effectiveness estimates were variable but frequently in an intermediate to high range (approximately 60% to 85%). Some investigators included serological methods or rapid-kit tests that may be less accurate than RT-PCR or viral culture methods. Of the studies using RT-PCR and/or viral culture to confirm influenza infection, efficacy/effectiveness ranged from 38% to 91% in all but two studies for whom the numbers included appeared insufficient for valid estimates.

Vaccine effectiveness of TIV has also been estimated via test-negative case-control sentinel network surveillance studies in Canada annually in recent years, with studies from the 2005/2006 influenza season onward retrieved in the literature search. Estimated vaccine effectiveness against any influenza strain ranged from 37% to 61% over the different seasons (adjusted for age and other confounders)[15]-[19]. Authors have recommended caution in generalizing results to other age groups than working-age adults (the predominant study participants). Interestingly, though, in one year for which a vaccine effectiveness estimate specific to Canadian children in the reviewed age range is available, that estimate appears quite close to the sentinel network estimate for the less than 50 year-old age group (of which 9 to 19-year-olds made up approximately 25%). Overall adjusted odds ratio for TIV in the sentinel network population, which was dominated by working adults, was estimated at 53%[17], while in the same season a cluster-controlled RCT demonstrated a point estimate of 55% VE in TIV-vaccinated 3 to 15-year-olds [20]. The number of healthy 5 to 18-year-olds among the vaccinees in the sentinel network studies has risen each year, allowing calculations of a vaccine effectiveness estimate specific to those less than 20 years of age in the more recent reports. In two such reports, effectiveness estimated for those less than 20 years without comorbidities was approximately 10% higher than the overall age-adjusted vaccine effectiveness estimate in one year and the same amount lower in another year (with confidence interval [CI] overlap in both years): 1) 71% in those less than 20 years of age versus the 60% estimated for all age groups combined[19] and 2) 27% in those less than 20 years of age versus 37% estimated for all age groups combined[18]. In both of these less than 20 years of age subgroup estimates an age adjustment was made based on two age set subgroups of children (under 9 and 9 to 19 years of age), with the data sets relatively dominated by the older children (61%) in the year that vaccine effectiveness in children exceeded the overall estimate and somewhat lower relative participation of older children (48%) in the data set that generated a lower vaccine effectiveness estimate relative to the estimate over all ages together.

A retrospective test-negative case-control analysis of surveillance data in another country (Australia) reported that no protection was apparent in 5 to 19-year-olds over five influenza seasons (2003-2007; OR= 1.6, (95% CI [0.6, 4.9])); however data included few vaccinees in this age group and the confidence intervals were very wide. Authors also collected no information and made no adjustments related to underlying health conditions, potentially biasing the results related to the practice of children with high-risk conditions being recommended for influenza vaccination [21].

Six studies included in Table 1 assessed the outcome of incidence of symptomatic influenza-like illness (called either acute respiratory illness (ARI), ARI with fever (FARI) or influenza-like illness (ILI) in the various studies). The majority of them did not demonstrate statistically significant vaccine effectiveness/efficacy against this outcome, including two papers from different seasons of the same randomized-controlled trial in Hong Kong[22][23], two Japanese cohort studies that did not include children older than 6 years (i.e. subset analysis of 5-<6 year- old participants were the only data considered as part of this review)[24][25] and one cohort study in UK in which the demonstration of lack of effectiveness appeared specific to the UK version of the vaccine[26]. A community-based trial of children up to 15 years of age in Japan did show vaccine effectiveness against ILI (estimated as 68% and 85% in one- and two-dose recipients, respectively); however selection bias could not be ruled out in this study since 64% of non-vaccinees were categorized as "healthy", compared to 78% or 77% in the one- or two-dose groups, respectively [27]. Another study addressing efficacy against symptom severity in breakthrough influenza reported that TIV had a modest impact on reducing the risk of developing a higher fever from influenza B, in children [28]. This case-control, multi-centre study of 2300 six month old to 13-year-old children in Japan assessed only children with fever and confirmed influenza B in the 2000/01 influenza season, and included a large proportion of children younger than 6 years of age (55% to 70%).

Four studies included in Table 1 assessed influenza-associated healthcare use in TIV-vaccinated children, such as hospitalizations, emergency department (ED) visits and medical office visits [25][29]-[31]. Three of these studies assessed hospitalizations, with one finding a significant decrease and the other two noting no significant difference in association with vaccination. Two of the same three studies also assessed outcomes of ED visits and doctor's office visits for pneumonia and/or influenza (P&I). ED visits were reported as not significantly different in one and significantly decreased in the other. Both studies indicated significant decreases in doctor's visits in at least a subset of the data analysed. One other study assessed medical office visits for severe ILI and found no significant decrease in vaccinated children. All of these findings are discussed in more detail in the following paragraphs.

In an ecological study of healthcare use outcomes associated with the entire province of Ontario's adoption of a universal influenza vaccination program [29], hospitalization of 5 to 19-year-olds for P&I was markedly reduced relative to other Canadian provinces without such a vaccination program (Risk Ratio (RR) for Ontario: Control provinces RR=0.25 [p=0.005]; this ratio reflects the finding that the influenza-associated hospitalization rate for 5 to 19-year-olds decreased by 37% in Ontario from pre- to post-intervention but increased 2.6-fold in the control provinces over the same time period). The Ontario program was also associated with decreases in ED use and doctor's office visits for P&I among this age group (ED visits: RR =0.29 [p<0.001], reflecting a 48% decrease in Ontario and a concurrent 1.8-fold increase in control provinces. Office visits: RR=0.39 [p<0.001], reflecting a 57% decrease in Ontario and a concurrent small 1.1-fold increase in control provinces). This study examined one pre-intervention and three post-intervention influenza seasons, sampled every second year, and assessed as a mean of all three.

Another study of Ontario's program covered seven consecutive post-intervention influenza seasons and made comparisons between areas within the province that differed in their vaccination rates for school-aged children [32]. Other than in school-age children, vaccination rates did not differ between the comparison groups. In this study, a differential vaccine coverage rate of approximately 10% (39% versus 30% in 12 to 19-year-olds and 36% versus 24% in 4 to

11-year-olds) was associated with neither hospitalization rate nor ED visit decreases [iii]. This study found a 24% reduction in influenza-related doctors' visits in 12 to 19-year-olds (p=0.03) and an estimated vaccine coverage increase from 30% to 39%. A 19% reduction in this outcome in 4 to 11-year-olds (in association with coverage increase from 24% to 36%) did not reach statistical significance (p=0.08).

Some studies did not demonstrate significant healthcare use decreases with vaccination. A Japanese prospective cohort, community-based study that spanned six consecutive influenza seasons and included 2,646 children aged 5 to less than 6 years (whose data were analyzed separately from other, younger children) reported no significant effect of vaccination on hospitalizations for influenza in this age group [25], but authors noted the already low hospitalization rate in unvaccinated children in this age group (0.9 per 100 individuals, cumulative 6-year-olds rate). Another Japanese prospective cohort study of the same age group in an earlier (single) influenza season showed no significant decrease in medical office visits for severe ILI in vaccinated children [31]; however it was not clear that this study assessed differences between comparable groups. A nested case-control study [33] that assessed hospitalization of children aged 6 months to 18 years of age with medically-attended influenza over eight influenza seasons (i.e. cases were hospitalized and controls were not; all subjects had medically-attended influenza) reported that TIV did not provide any protection against hospitalization in these children, instead being associated with a nearly three-fold increased risk of hospitalization. This study included a large proportion of children with asthma or other high-risk health conditions, and the comparison groups were not equivalent in this regard (proportion of children with health conditions was 38% among vaccinees, but only 20% in non-vaccinees), allowing for health condition-related bias in study results. The proportion of young children in this age group in this review was also not clear.

In summary, a Canadian ecological study showed health care use for influenza-related events in 5-19-year-olds in Ontario was reduced by 37% relative to the same age group in other provinces over the same time frame, in association with an Ontario vaccination program and higher relative vaccine coverage of this age group, although not demonstrable between areas within the province that had relatively small differential vaccine coverage. Though ecological studies are subject to many study design caveats, these results are highlighted for there particular relevance to Canada. Studies assessing healthcare use in association with children's influenza vaccination were not unanimous in demonstrating beneficial effect; however, several of those that failed to do so appeared to have quality issues (related to internal and/or external validity to healthy 5 to 18-year-olds).

A study assessing school absenteeism in association with TIV vaccination in an elementary school in Japan over a 24–year period during which vaccination coverage of its pupils went from near-total to near-zero and back up again, demonstrated a significant inverse correlation between the children's vaccination coverage and absenteeism (p=0.0018) or class cancellations (p=0.0042; as per policy to cancel classes upon a 20% class absence threshold)[34].

[iii] In the inter-provincial study of the same program [Kwong 2008] that did show a significant difference in these outcomes, the differential in vaccine coverage rate was also approximately 10%; however that figure is not directly comparable to the coverage differential in the 2010 study, since it represents a pre-post rather than simply post-intervention comparison. In the 2008 study the post-intervention vaccination rates in Ontario 12-19-year-olds was estimated at 31%, versus 11% in the concurrent control provinces.

III.2.2 TIV summary

In summary, direct efficacy/effectiveness of TIV was demonstrated in several studies that addressed a lab-confirmed influenza outcome over various influenza seasons, geographical locations, and types of studies. Not all of these presented vaccine effectiveness/efficacy results against "any influenza" (as opposed to against one or more individual components); therefore effectiveness/efficacy estimates from different studies may not be comparable. Though reported vaccine effectiveness/efficacy estimates were frequently in the 65% to 85% range they did not appear to be uniformly high over the different seasons or study settings; some, but not all of the studies that failed to demonstrate high or statistically significant estimates were likely underpowered. Vaccine effectiveness against influenza-like illness was generally not well demonstrated in the studies included in this review, although one of the six studies assessing this suggested high effectiveness (68% to 85%) against this outcome. An ecological study of Ontario's universal vaccination program suggested an association between increased vaccine coverage in 5 to 19-year-olds and decreased healthcare use related to influenza in this age group, relative to other provinces. Likewise, absenteeism from school appeared inversely related to vaccination coverage of the pupils when examined over a long time course of variable vaccination coverages (in Japan).

III.2.3 Direct efficacy/Effectiveness LAIV

LAIV studies with direct efficacy/effectiveness results against lab-confirmed influenza outcomes are presented in Table 2. In one randomized, controlled trial over four consecutive influenza seasons, significant VE of LAIV against culture-confirmed influenza A infection in 1 to 15-year-olds was estimated at 67.7% (95% CI [1.1, 89.5]) during H3N2-circulating years and 95.5% (95% CI [66.7, 99.4]) over the H1N1-circulating years [35]. Age-stratified VE values were not provided, but the 6 to 15-year-olds made up approximately 66% of the study participants. VE against Influenza B was not assessed in this study, since participants in all comparison groups received inactivated influenza B vaccination and the LAIV was bivalent (A strains only). Indeed, a caveat for this study (which was based on a much earlier trial) was its use of a 1980's pre-licensure research lab-produced LAIV, which differed from the current commercially available LAIV.

In a multi-year controlled trial (non-randomized, community-based), Piedra reported significant protection by LAIV against RT-PCR-confirmed influenza (p=0.006) during one study season, based on surveillance samples from a small proportion of study subjects [36]. These data (19/55 influenza positive cases in LAIV recipients and 127/231 in unvaccinated children) were not reported as a vaccine effectiveness estimate with confidence intervals, per se; however, a crude estimate based on them yields a vaccine effectiveness of approximately 37%.

A retrospective observational study of 17,095 children less than 18 years of age over five pre-intervention and two intervention seasons in comparator regions of Tennessee (with, versus without a school vaccination program for 5 to 17-year-olds) reported vaccine effectiveness of 27% (95% CI [0.60, 0.87]) against rapid influenza test-confirmed influenza in one of the intervention seasons (2006/2007), but no significant effectiveness in the other (2005/2006; a 21% vaccine effectiveness was not statistically significant)[37]. In the season with a significant vaccine effectiveness (2006/2007), subset analysis of 5 to 11 versus 12 to 17-year-olds showed an approximate 13% higher point estimate in the older children as compared to the younger, but the confidence intervals overlapped between the two age subsets. In another study comparing RT-PCR-confirmed influenza in 887 5 to 12-year-olds from the same intervention county and

season (2006/2007) to a different comparator region, a prospective cohort found no significant VE (p=0.85) despite performing PCR on all enrollees rather than just a small number, and verification that vaccination coverage in individuals from the intervention county was greater than the comparator county (44% versus 12%)[38]. These conflicting results highlight a caveat of inter-regional comparisons, in that control regions are part of the 'equation' determining the comparative outcome, and vaccination status is rarely the only variable between communities, despite investigators' attempts to select comparable regions and verify theoretical equivalence between comparator groups.

In a more recent test-negative case-control study, Treanor et al. reported significant vaccine effectiveness of LAIV in young children (2 to 8 years) but non-significant effectiveness in older subjects (9 to 49 years)[39].Effectiveness was 71% (95% CI [50, 83]) in 2 to 8-year-olds; however it was unclear if these data were primarily based on the participation of children younger than 5 years, the intended age set of the current review. The study reported a non-significant effectiveness of LAIV for subjects over 8 years of age (9 to 49-year-olds; 42%; 95% CI [-28, 74]); however few vaccinated cases were available (n=9), and applicability to children, per se, is uncertain since no further age breakdown between 9 to 49 years was described for the 9 cases or the 34 controls.

In summary, few studies of direct efficacy/effectiveness of LAIV using lab-confirmed influenza as an outcome and specific to 5 to 18-year-olds were retrieved in the search. Two studies including substantial or unclear proportions of younger children reported effectiveness/efficacy estimates of 68% to 95%; however it is not clear that vaccine and/or subject age considerations permit extrapolation of these results to current-day, commercially available LAIV and/or subjects aged 5 to 18 years. Much lower effectiveness was noted in the other studies (from non-significant to approximately 37%). These studies were all specific to the 5 to 18 year age subset, but may have suffered from study quality issues such as too few samples analyzed or confounding.

The six LAIV articles with results on direct efficacy/effectiveness against MAARI in Table 2 all relate to three different seasons of a multi-year, non-randomized controlled trial (NCT00138294). This 'Central Texas field trial' began in 1998 and is still listed as active on ClinTrials.gov[iv]; though designed to assess community effects of schoolchildren vaccination (hence also discussed under the herd immunity section) it also assessed direct effects by comparing vaccinated and age-matched non-recipient children within the intervention region (and/or between intervention and control regions), who were members of a particular health plan. A caveat in interpreting these studies is that three papers reported on the same data set (2000/2001 season)[40]-[42], and two papers on another data set (2003/2004 season)[36][43]. One paper reported on a later season (2007/2008)[44].

Over all of these papers, effectiveness/efficacy against MAARI ranged from non-significant estimates to 31% in children 5 to 9 or 5 to 11 years old and from non-significant to 24% in children 10 to 18 years old (data were not reported over the entire age set of 5 to 18 years of age).
The main findings of Gaglani et al. and Halloran et al. regarding the third season of the trial (2000/2001) were that LAIV demonstrated direct effectiveness against MAARI (14% and 24% in 10 to 18 and 5 to 9-year-olds, respectively, who had received a dose for three years in a row[v],

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regardless of whether non-vaccinated controls were from the intervention or control communities) and that protection, particularly in the 5 to 9-year-old subset of children, seemed to include subtype cross-immunity effects and a duration that continued into a second season, post-vaccination[40][41]. Given the model used, the non-random and potentially biased decision to culture samples, the low numbers of vaccinated cases and the significantly different sampling proportions reported between the vaccinated and unvaccinated groups, it is not clear if the much higher vaccine effectiveness estimate estimated via a mean score method of applying surveillance sample data to MARRI rates is a valid estimate of vaccine effectiveness.

Although the vaccination of children over three influenza seasons was described in three papers assessing vaccine effectiveness against MAARI during the 2000/2001 season, direct effectiveness, results from the first two seasons (1998/1999 and 1999/2000) were not reported in any of these papers. Only a bar graph in Piedra et al. (Figure 2) shows some data specific to 5 to 17, and the figure appears more consistent with increased rather than decreased relative risk for MAARI in 5 to 11 and 12 to 17-year-olds from the intervention community; however this subjective impression remains unverified via numerical or statistical comparisons since values and analyses were not presented for these age groups [42]. Instead authors chose to group these age groups together with adults in the tabulated data presented. Vaccine effectiveness in 5 to 34-year-olds was reported as negative in the 1998/1999 season (1-RR=-0.06, (95% CI [-0.11, -0.01])) and non-significant in 1999/2000 (1-RR=-0.03, (95% CI [-0.08, 0.02])). In the pre-intervention season it was 0.02 (95% CI [-0.04, 0.94]). The vaccine was reported as a good match for circulating strains during these two seasons.

The same data set (from the 2003/2004 season of the Texas trial) was examined by Piedra et al. and Halloran et al. with differing results [36][43]. Piedra found no significant effectiveness against MAARI for either 5 to 9 or 10 to 18-year-olds when comparing vaccinated to unvaccinated children within the intervention community[vi], whereas Halloran reported significant vaccine effectiveness of 31% (95% CI [11, 47]) and 24% (95% CI [3, 40]) in the same two groups and outcome measure[vii]. This season's study was complicated by an unexpectedly early influenza season onset that resulted in overlap of vaccination and outbreak periods. A complex scenario regarding timing of each individual's vaccination in relation to their MAARI onset (if applicable) was controlled on an individual basis in the Halloran paper but not in the Piedra paper, suggesting the former's effectiveness estimate against MAARI may have less potential for confounding (when comparing these two conflicting results). With respect to a second vaccine effectiveness figure calculated in Halloran 2007 (similar to that described in Halloran 2003 using a validation sample-adjusted-MAARI rate adjustment model) and shown in Table 2, it is unclear if that modeled adjustment produced a valid estimate[viii].

Glezen et al. analyzed results from the 2007/2008 season of this trial and is discussed further in the subsection on herd effects. This study presented data regarding direct effectiveness, but had only a single LAIV recipient in its surveillance sample [44].
Regarding direct effectiveness of LAIV against healthcare use for influenza-related illness, two studies assessed associations between LAIV receipt and hospitalization for MAARI or influenza-

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[vi] But a 13% effect when comparing between communities (for 5 to 11-year-olds only).
[vii] Text but not tables in the Piedra article did describe a significant difference when the event definition was changed from MAARI to P&I, for 5 to 18-year-olds altogether or just the subset of 5 to 9-year-olds; however the Halloran paper did not assess that outcome. Likely confounding in the Piedra event rate model as discussed later in the paragraph renders the impact of this finding unclear.
[viii]For some of the reasons as discussed regarding the similar calculation in Halloran 2003 and the 2001/2002 season of the same trial, and also as it may have excluded a large proportion (approximately 1/3) of the results from unvaccinated children that were shown in surveillance sample analysis of the same group in the Piedra 2007 paper.

attributed MAARI, with both finding no significant difference in hospitalization rates of children in LAIV school-vaccination areas and those without: Grijalva et al. analyzed influenza-attributed MAARI hospitalizations among 5 to 17-year-olds over five pre-intervention seasons and two intervention seasons, in two regions (one with an LAIV school vaccination program for this age group and one without)[45]. Influenza rates and related healthcare use for these children were similar between the regions and relatively stable over the five baseline seasons. During vaccine campaign years, too, hospitalization rates showed no differences for 5 to 17-year-olds between the regions, despite estimated school program coverage of 41% to 48% achieved over the two seasons and no such program in the control region. Vaccination status of the study participants themselves was not directly determined.

Similarly, in an ecological study, King et al. assessed the effects associated with an elementary school vaccination program in Maryland over three seasons, comparing school coverage rates achieved in the different counties of the State to healthcare use indices [46]. Coverage rates varied from 3% to 46% in 5 to 11-year-olds in the different counties, but authors found no significant differences in hospitalization of 5 to 11-year-olds for MAARI associated with increased coverage.

The same two studies described above for hospitalization outcomes also addressed ED visits for the same causes and in the same groups. Grijalva et al. [45] reported significant VE for this, with the magnitude of the effect almost identical in younger children 5 to 11 years (33%) and older children 12 to 17 years (34%) despite lower LAIV coverage in the older ones[ix]. On a population basis, the difference quantified to approximately five fewer influenza-related ED visits per 1000 for this age group. King (described above under hospitalizations) reported an 8% decrease (p<.0001) in ED visits for MAARI in 5 to 11-year-olds, for each 20% increase in elementary school LAIV coverage[46].

In summary, two studies presented data on healthcare use outcomes, specific to the age group of school vaccine program recipients (i.e. neither study verified vaccination status of individual study participants). Both showed a significant reduction in ED visits for influenza and no significant effect on hospitalization for influenza in this age group.

Six studies of various designs and conducted over five different influenza seasons addressed absenteeism as an outcome and all of them found significant decreases in school absenteeism by at least one of the indices they used to measure this. All are presented in Table 2[47]-[52].

As an overall summary of the LAIV efficacy/effectiveness studies presented above: there were few high-level studies specific to the 5-18 year-old age set and providing efficacy/effectiveness data of LAIV against lab-confirmed influenza. In a single RCT with subjects predominated by this age group, VE of 67.7% (95% CI [1.1. 89.5]) over two seasons with circulating H3N2 and VE of 95.5% (95% CI [66.7, 99.4]) over two seasons with circulating H1N1 were reported [35]. A non-randomized community-based controlled trial (specific to 5-18-year-olds) suggested much lower vaccine effectiveness (approximately 37%, p=<0.5), as did a retrospective study comparing intervention and control community 5-17-year-olds over pre-intervention seasons and school vaccine campaign seasons (non-significant estimates to 27% (95% CI [0.60, 0.87]))[37]. Regarding vaccine effectiveness against MAARI as an outcome, different analysis approaches and seasons of the multi-year Central Texas trial did not always report on or

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[ix] The approximate 48% coverage in Knox County's public school students during the 2006/2007 flu season reportedly represented 61% of the elementary school students but only 26% of the high school students reflecting higher compliance in elementary schools [37][59].

demonstrate direct vaccine effectiveness of LAIV; when a significant effectiveness estimate was reported it did not exceed 31% (95% CI [11, 47]) in 5 to 9-year-olds or 24% (95% CI [3, 40]) in 10 to 18-year-olds [43]. In one of the study years, authors noted these levels of protection despite a strain mismatch in the vaccine relative to the circulating H3N2 virus, and an unexpectedly early influenza season arrival that coincided with the vaccination campaign. Healthcare use indices were not widely studied for this age group and vaccine; however both studies that addressed this reported diminished emergency department visits for MAARI but no effect on MAARI-related hospitalization. Effectiveness of LAIV against school absenteeism was shown in a number of studies.

III.2.4 Indirect efficacy/Effectiveness TIV

Studies of the indirect efficacy/effectiveness of TIV on other community or family members included positive and negative findings.

Retrospective ecological studies related to historical public health policy and suggesting indirect effectiveness have received much attention in the literature. A brief synopsis of the relevant background, culled from various articles is as follows: From 1977 to 1987 Japanese schoolchildren were subject to a mandatory influenza vaccination program that achieved between 50% and 85% annual national coverage [34)(53)-(55]. In 1987 new legislation allowed parents to refuse vaccination for their child, and vaccination coverage in children began declining. In 1994 the program was officially discontinued following large-scale studies that reported only slight effectiveness of the vaccination program against school absenteeism. That year vaccination of children dropped to nearly zero. Several retrospective studies using national statistics have subsequently suggested that the vaccination program may indeed have been an effective public policy, both as related to school-based effectiveness for the vaccinees themselves[34)] and as relates to indirect effectiveness for younger and older age groups (discussed below), who at the time of the school vaccination program were not targeted for influenza vaccination themselves (i.e., almost all of Japan's vaccine supply was given to schoolchildren, with very low coverage of other age groups until after the policy change to discontinue the schoolchildren vaccination program).

The first of these studies, an ecological observational study comparing influenza vaccine uptake and excess winter death rates in Japan over 50 years, was published in 2001 in the *New England Journal of Medicine* and showed that excess all-cause and P&I mortality decreased in Japan while the program was active and increased again once it was discontinued [53]. Authors interpreted the findings as indicative of herd immunity effects in the elderly, although data were population level and not broken out into age groups. The study was criticized for methodological issues such as not adjusting for rapid socio-economic and demographic changes following World War II (i.e. mortality reductions were estimated in that study by comparing excess P&I mortality rates in 1990 to those in the 1960s, but influenza-related excess mortality rates in the 1950s–1960s were declining sharply in all countries due to socio-economic changes after the war). Other criticisms included that the effects of circulation of influenza were not taken into account, such as, for example, the population-wide acquisition of natural immunity to circulating strains over a time following the 1968 pandemic (i.e. overlapping with the initiation of the children's vaccination). Although these potential confounders could conceivably be linked to the decreased winter mortality that occurred over the timeframe of vaccination, they could not explain why the excess winter mortality rates suddenly rose again (although summer rates remained constant) when the vaccination program halted and children's vaccine uptake dropped precipitously to almost zero. Authors suggested that vaccination had been preventing children from transmitting influenza to their grandparents, who often lived in the same home. In a similar

study that also did not adjust for many potential confounders, but did provide age-specific breakdowns of mortality data, Sugaya et al. noted similar trends of decreased excess mortality in younger children (1 to 4-year-olds) that reversed when the vaccination of schoolchildren stopped, and suggested that it was explained by herd protection had extended to the younger siblings of vaccinated school children [55].

Charu et al. and others have shown that excess mortality estimates are very sensitive to the frequency of A/H3N2 virus circulation, another potential confounder not controlled for in the above studies, and one that may have influenced the increasing mortality rates following cessation of the program, when these strains began circulating more frequently[56]. These authors performed a new analysis of Japanese and US mortality data (specific to the elderly), during and following the schoolchildren vaccination program. Their results suggested that a large fraction of the increased mortality in the elderly after the cessation of the schoolchildren vaccination program was likely related to the more frequent circulation of severe A/H3N2 subtypes that occurred during that timeframe. These authors also finely controlled for age and the aging population (five stratified age groups for seniors), included supplementary data on age-specific vaccine coverage, and also controlled for other potential confounders not included in the Reichert study [53]. They also incorporated statistical assessment into the model, in contrast to the previous descriptive approach. Their results remained consistent with the overall conclusions of the Reichert study that vaccination of school children was associated with herd protection in the elderly; a 36% (95% CI [17, 51]), statistically significant indirect vaccine effectiveness on the elderly was demonstrated, which equated to approximately 1000 P&I deaths of seniors averted per influenza season (much lower than the approximate 10,000 per season estimated in the Reichert study, which however was a total population estimate rather than an age-stratified one). Charu's estimated indirect benefits translated to 7.5 elderly influenza-attributed deaths averted per 100,000 population (95% CI [2.8/100,000, 14.4/100,000]).

In Canada, a high quality, clustered RCT of Canadian Hutterite communities (tightly-knit rural, Anabaptist colonies where school age is 3 to 15 years old), reported indirect VE of 61% (95% CI [8, 83]) against RT-PCR-confirmed influenza in unvaccinated community members of all ages, when children 3-15 years old were subject to mass vaccination[20]. Average coverage was 83% in these children (range 53%-100%) across the 22 colonies that received the influenza vaccine. Influenza vaccine coverage in the rest of the community was fairly low (individuals with high risk conditions, approximately 10%.This coverage rate was similar in both arms of the study). The model used to adjust VE for potential confounders took this into account. Indirect effects on the community were non-significant against outcomes of ILI or doctor's visits for respiratory illness, but antimicrobial prescriptions in the community showed significant reduction. A secondary analysis of indirect VE against four-fold rises in antibody titre showed lower VE compared to the original analysis but still demonstrated significant indirect VE against serologically- confirmed influenza (20% (95% CI [9, 30]) or against illness symptoms in those who had developed four-fold rises in antibody titre (12% (95% CI [2, 22])[57].

Studies of indirect effectiveness of TIV that returned negative findings included: An RCT on 119 randomized households in Hong Kong found no protection to household members by TIV versus saline placebo vaccination of a child in the household [58]. Outcome measures were serological confirmation, RT-PCR confirmation, ILI symptoms and ARI symptoms and all showed no significant differences between households with or without a vaccinated child. Two ecological studies in Ontario assessed effects of small increases in coverage of schoolchildren in the context of a provincial universal vaccine program, as previously discussed under 'direct effectiveness'[29][32]. The previously noted vaccination-associated direct benefits

were not accompanied by any evidence of corresponding indirect protection to other age groups, in any of the outcomes reported: hospitalizations for P&I in any age group or in all age groups together demonstrated no significant differences, nor did ED visits for P&I. Paradoxically, rather than protection to other age groups noted, increased vaccination of 5-18-year-olds was associated with a significant increase in infants' doctor visits for P&I or other respiratory illnesses.

III.2.5 Indirect effectiveness of LAIV

Two observational studies assessed potential herd effects of a school vaccination program for 5-17-year-olds in Tennessee, using the outcome of lab-confirmed influenza. Grijalva et al. showed no significant differences between the intervention and control region's rapid-test-confirmed influenza rates in 0-4-year-olds in either or both of the two study seasons [37]. During the first season, 41% of 5 to 17-year-olds received LAIV through the school vaccination campaign, and 48% received the vaccination through the program during the second season. A prospective cohort study carried out during the second of the two seasons in the same intervention county (but comparing it to a different control region) reported increased, rather than decreased, RT-PCR-confirmed influenza rates in intervention county 0 to 4-year-olds, (p=0.01), despite similar vaccination levels in this age group between the two regions [38]. A third study designed to assess herd immunity related to an LAIV school vaccination program (one of the Central Texas field trial papers) assessed the vaccine coverage (including background TIV coverage as well as LAIV from the school vaccine program) in both study groups and showed that despite a 51.3% differential in influenza vaccine coverage (75.8% in intervention 5 to 11-year-olds versus 24.5% in comparator region 5 to 11-year-olds), community rates showed no significant differences both for the numbers of samples cultured for suspected influenza or for proportion of cultures proving influenza-positive[44].

Three articles (all from the Central Texas field trial) that assessed herd effects looked at MMARI rates in other members of the community following a 48% coverage rate among school children in a school vaccine campaign. It was not clear; however, if the demonstrated decreases in MAARI rates were truly attributable to herd protection. For example, Piedra attributed a significantly reduced risk of MAARI, ranging between 8% and 18% (1-RR) over three years, in adults over 35 years of age to a herd immunity effect that was due to protecting children, but showed no protective effect in children [42].

Gaglani et al.[40] reported on one season of the same trial as did Piedra et al. [42] (above) and presented data inconsistent with herd protection effects of vaccinees upon their schoolmates. Age-eligible non-vaccinated members of the intervention community, in which 9765 of their peers had been vaccinated (approximately 48% of the age group), had similar MAARI rates to the age-eligible non-recipients in the comparison community (who were reported as having no LAIV and very low TIV coverage). Rates[x] in 5 to 9-year-olds were 61.7% versus 59.7% (i.e. within 2%, slightly higher in intervention community) and the rates in 10 to 18-year-olds were 32.2% versus 32.7% (i.e. within 0.5%, slightly lower in intervention community). A potential herd immunity effect of mass vaccination in the schools on MAARI rates of the unvaccinated classmates was not analyzed, but is not readily apparent upon observation of the above rates. These data were from the same season for which Piedra 2005 reported a 15% effect against M/ ARI rates in adults over 35 years (with rates of 15.1% versus 17.8% in intervention versus control communities).

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x   Corrected for number of children and number of days of MAARI event collection.

In a later season of the same trial, Piedra reported significantly reduced relative risk for MAARI between intervention and control counties for some age groups during the influenza outbreak period and also presented the RR values for the same groups during the rest of the year (i.e. non-influenza MAARI) as comparators, using a pre-influenza outbreak period (end June to October) and a post-influenza outbreak period (late December to July; rates were normalized to person-weeks)[36]. All three of 45 to 54, 55 to 64, and greater than 64-year-old age groups demonstrated significantly reduced risk for MAARI in the intervention community, not only during the influenza period but also during both other periods (RRs from 0.79 to 0.87), demonstrating constant differences between these comparator regions in MAARI incidence for these age groups, unrelated to influenza or to vaccination of children. Authors acknowledged this and did not attribute reduced MAARI in these adults/elderly to herd immunity effects vaccine program in this article; however, the finding draws into question the attribution of similar decreased MAARI risk in adults and elderly in the same intervention community versus the same control community, two seasons earlier[42] and four seasons later[44]. Reduced risk for MAARI that was specific to the influenza period (i.e. not pre- or post-) was also reported in this paper[36] in one other non-vaccine recipient age group: 9% reduced risk in 35 to 44-year-olds (RR=0.91; 95% CI [0.83-1.00]).

In a later season of the same trial (already described above under lab-confirmed influenza outcome), the authors' attribution of decreased MAARI rates (6-15%) in the intervention community to indirect protection from vaccinated children did not appear supported by the data, since Figure 2 showed the differences in community MAARI rates prior to commencement of the vaccination program start date, and they also persisted throughout the non-influenza period after the epidemic with almost exactly the same risk ratio as during it (0.91, 95% CI [0.88-0.93]); point estimate was 0.90 during influenza period)[44]. The lack of effect on the more specific lab-confirmed influenza rates of the community already discussed above are also at odds with the authors' conclusions.

Healthcare use (for influenza-like illness, MAARI, P&I) was the outcome in several studies of indirect LAIV effectiveness. Two studies assessed the effects of schoolchildren vaccination programs on P&I related hospitalizations, specifically in the elderly. Talbot et al. reported no significant difference in hospitalizations for confirmed influenza in those aged 65 years and over, in the intervention county (i.e. where approximately 48% of schoolchildren had been vaccinated in a school program, in addition to those vaccinated outside the program)[59]. These authors did report a decrease in hospitalization for the subgroup of 50 to 64-year-olds; however the estimate was made based on only four intervention county cases, too few for accurate estimates of population rate, and the authors also demonstrated significantly higher influenza vaccination rates in the older subjects themselves, in the intervention county. Together these call into question the interpretation of these results as indicating indirect protection to older adults via school children vaccination.

Grijalva et al. assessed the baseline levels in both control and intervention communities prior to program implementation, followed by two intervention seasons (41% and 48% school coverage in 2005/2006 and 2006/2007, respectively) and showed no significant differences in 50 to 64-year-olds or those 65 years and over, with respect to either hospitalization or ED visits for influenza-attributed MAARI[45].

McBean et al., comparing the same regions and intervention seasons as Grijalva 2010 (plus one more) but using a different data source (Medicare administrative records, versus the hospital records of the former study) evaluated the potential herd immunity effects on reducing

influenza-related illness in the elderly following the implementation of the school vaccination campaigns[60]. These investigators performed an unusually careful assessment of health status, historical intercommunity differences, and other potential confounders in their study populations (the elderly, in intervention versus control counties)[xi], providing a powerful reminder of the potential impact such biases may have on study results. They reported no significant differences in rates of hospitalization for P&I among elderly (greater than 65 years old) residents of the intervention county in all three intervention years, once data were adjusted for these biases, in contrast to statistically significant differences noted prior to bias consideration. Notably, P&I hospitalization rates showed no significant differences either when assessing all the hospitalized elderly individuals, or when assessing just the subgroup that was unvaccinated against influenza.

Hull et al. examined hospitalizations for P&I as well as outpatient and office visits for MAARI in 65 to 99-year-old Medicare enrollees in intervention and control counties of two U.S. states, including five or six baseline (pre-intervention) comparison seasons and one or two intervention seasons per state[61]. Influenza vaccine coverage of the schoolchildren vaccination programs ranged from 41% to greater than 50% over the intervention years and regions; however of the three intervention season-regions examined, none showed significant differences in outpatient and office visits, and hospitalization rates were inconsistent, with one significantly lower, one significantly higher, and one showing no differences, in association with schoolchildren vaccination (statistical results were not corrected for multiple comparisons).

King et al. assessed records from all hospitals in all counties of the state of Maryland over three influenza seasons and reported no significant differences in MAARI-related ED visits (during the influenza outbreak period) or mortality rates in any sets of adults over 50 years of age, in association with differential coverage rates of a schoolchildren vaccination program in different counties of the state [46]. On the other hand, the program was associated with significant effects on hospitalization for MAARI during the influenza outbreak period; however the result was an increase, not a decrease. Significant increases in hospitalization for young children (0 to 4 years) were also noted in this study.

Another study also showed paradoxical significantly increased hospitalization for influenza-like illness in association with increased schoolchildren influenza vaccination, this one in a large, multi-centre, cluster-controlled trial across four US states, (although data were not specific to elderly or young groups since age groups were not broken out further than adult and children, including everyone in households)[48]. It is unclear if a post-hoc analysis that was performed on non-cluster-controlled portions of the data and did not show statistical significance in the same measure can be considered valid. Authors correctly emphasize the superiority of the cluster control design to control for intercommunity bias throughout the paper, yet report this presumably more biased, non-cluster controlled sub-analysis for this unexpected result.

The above study also showed significant decreases in questionnaire-reported children's visits to doctors or clinics for ILI (children included school children subject to the school program as well as their younger and/or older siblings), and overall family reports of ILI symptoms and medication or remedy use for ILI (p<.0001)[48].

In another paradoxical finding, ED visits for MAARI (in 18 to 34-year-olds) that were significantly lower in the intervention versus control community in five pre-intervention seasons experienced

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[xi]   Many of the reviewed studies in the LAIV literature compared different communities with and without a school
      vaccination program, but no other investigated potential confounders to this level of detail

a relative increase when children's vaccine coverage increased in two intervention seasons, when rates showed no significant differences between the comparison communities[45].

Three studies that assessed absenteeism reported significant reductions in this outcome, associated with schoolchildren vaccination. King et al. showed reductions in family absentee rates (i.e. these might have included a vaccinated child as well as other children or adults in the household)[47][48]. Davis 2008 reported significantly reduced absenteeism in high schools associated a vaccinee program that targeted only elementary school children [51].

III.2.6 Summary of LAIV indirect effectiveness

In summary, all three articles assessing indirect effectiveness against lab-confirmed influenza were unable to demonstrate any reductions in this outcome, in the groups they assessed. Articles from three seasons of a non-randomized controlled community-based trial demonstrated no or low (6 to 15%) reductions in MAARI rates of communities or of specific age groups within them; however it was not clear that the effects were attributable to herd effects from schoolchildren vaccination. The only cluster-controlled trial of these various community-based trials reported decreases in ILI symptoms and several indices of healthcare use for influenza among families of children in vaccine-program schools (family indices represented a mixed [indirect and direct] measure rather than indirect, since children in intervention schools were also included in the outcome measures). This trial also reported significantly increased rates of hospitalization associated with the vaccination program. Several other studies also noted such paradoxical increases in influenza-associated healthcare use. Five studies analyzed healthcare use by senior citizens in association with schoolchildren vaccination programs in their community. Three found no significant effects, a fourth found inconsistent effects that included no effect, a decrease, and an increase in hospitalization, and a fifth that also studied younger groups showed increased hospitalization over all ages and in older adults specifically. Paradoxical increases in ED use for respiratory events were also noted in younger adults associated with a schoolchildren vaccine program (relative to historical intercommunity differences).

III.3　Immunogenicity

Three randomized, controlled trials, one non-randomized trial and one post-marketing open-label clinical trial were included in Tables 3 and 4, related to immunogenicity of TIV and LAIV. Together they confirmed that seasonal influenza vaccine is immunogenic in children 5 to 18 years of age. These studies added little information to those already demonstrating efficacy/effectiveness so will not be extensively discussed. The reader is referred to tables for details that may be of interest.

One immunogenicity study not included in the tables but of potential interest is Gilca et al. [62], who that showed TIV in the 2010/2011 season to be highly immunogenic in a convenience sample of children 10 years old and younger (approximately 34% of whom were 6 to 10 years old) who had received pandemic H1N1 vaccine in the previous season.

III.4   Safety

III.4.1 Reactogenicity and adverse events - TIV

Table 5 presents reactogenicity and adverse event data from nine studies, including four randomized, controlled trials[35][63]-[65], two open-label trials[66][67] of one versus two doses, and three case-centred analyses[68]-[70]. None of these studies reported any deaths. Serious adverse events reported represented less than or equal to 1.3% of vaccinated children overall [35][63]-[65][67] and was less than or equal to 0.2% in two of them[35][63]. Only one of these SAEs in one study was considered by investigators to be potentially related to vaccination in 5 to 18-year-olds (one seizure disorder)[64]. SAEs judged as unrelated to vaccination by investigators were described in one paper as being mostly classified as infections (e.g. pneumonia, candidiasis, etc.)[64]. The majority of reactogenicity and local and systemic adverse events were described as mild to moderate and transient. Frequently reported events included muscle ache, headache, fatigue, cold symptoms, and pain at the injection site. Similarly, when telephone surveys for adverse events were conducted following the first year of Canada's publicly-funded program for influenza vaccination of infants, toddlers and their household members (including predominantly adults but also siblings of the infants), highlighted events (greater than 5% or significant) in vaccinated household members were muscle aches and arm discomfort [71].

Three case-centred studies included in Table 5 identified no new safety signals[68] and no evidence of pre-specified safety signals[69][70], through examination of the timing of occurrence of adverse events relative to the time of vaccine receipt. Quality concerns related to two of those studies (France and Rowhani) are discussed in Table 5[68][70]. Greene's analysis noted no signals related to any pre-specified event, including Bell's Palsy, GBS, anaphylaxis, seizures, allergies, and others, but low power was noted by authors in some cases[69]. Lee et al. also noted no pre-specified safety signals in a prospective surveillance study of the 2009/2010 influenza season using the Vaccine Safety Datalink (a database of approximately 9.2 million adults and children in the U.S. who are health plan members)[72]. Though numbers and ages of children were not described, a figure suggested that approximately 28% of them had received TIV.

In a prospective case-control study, Grimaldi-Bensouda et al. surveyed all incident GBS cases from 46 major regional hospitals in France and six of the country's nine major paediatric centres over three seasons, to assess the risk of GBS in vaccine recipients[73]. No significant risk associated with TIV receipt was reported. Only eight children were in the study population (i.e. 95% adult study population) and their vaccination status was unclear, rendering the study of questionable applicability for the purposes of this review; however, it is mentioned because it may be reassuring that despite authors' description of wide national hospital coverage and children up to 18 years-old being on the country's annual recommendation for vaccination list, few children with GBS were reported, with no evidence of a relationship to influenza vaccination. Similarly, Stowe et al. also found no evidence of an increased risk of GBS after seasonal influenza vaccine, either in an age-adjusted total sample or in the subset group of less than 16 years of age, in which, notably, this case series (using all GBS cases with onset within 90 days after vaccination, recorded in the General Practice Research Database of the United Kingdom from 1990 to 2005) detected there was zero incidence[74].

None of these articles reported evidence of significant safety signals, other than one related to oculo-respiratory syndrome (ORS). An ORS safety signal was traced to a specific Canadian vaccine during the 2000/2001 season (which in one study appeared in similar rates in diabetic children and their non-diabetic siblings as had been noted in adults)[75].

Spontaneous reports of adverse events following TIV vaccination were analyzed in relation to reported events from other vaccines, using VAERS data in a review covering 17 years in the US[76]. Due to coding changes in the database following 2006, data were presented separately for the first 16 years (1990-2006; in 2 to 17-year-olds or 5 to 17-year-olds) and a second period of one year (2008/2009) in 5 to 17-year-olds. Notably, the former period was prior to expanded recommendations in the US for inclusion of healthy children on the list of recommended influenza vaccine recipients, whereas the latter time period followed the recommendation change to include healthy 5 to 18-year-olds on that list. Information regarding how many children were vaccinated with TIV over this time frame was not complete; however was reported as follows: estimated 5 to 18-year-old influenza vaccinations in 2004/2005 n=5,100,647; estimated 5 to 18-year-old influenza vaccinations in 2008/2009 n=13,525,134. The main findings of the review, as regards healthy 5 to 18-year-olds, were as follows:

- No new or unexpected adverse events of concern identified.
- Only two potential vaccine-event signals in 2 to 17-year-olds :
    1. Medication errors (most commonly relating to children less than 5 years [19%] rather than older than 5 years [3%], and not associated with any adverse events), the medication errors were most frequently associated with administration of the wrong vaccine for the age range or dosing errors.
    2. GBS. The disproportionate GBS reporting was noted by authors as suggesting that ongoing monitoring would be appropriate but not as a finding that could be interpreted as causally related to vaccination.
- Total reported events for 5 to 17-year-olds from 1999 to 2006: n=1235 (median age 10 years, 48% female)
    o Five deaths (all children had chronic conditions)
    o 148 (12%) serious events (seven of which were verified GBS). Top five: fever, vomiting, headache, pain, seizures.
    o 1087 non-serious events. Top five: injection site reaction, fever, vasodilatation, urticaria, pain.
- Total reported events for 5 to 17-year-olds in 2008/2009: n=506
    o Two deaths, both with confirmed influenza as cause of death
    o 34 (6.7%) serious events (three of which were verified GBS, three anaphylaxis, two new onset non-febrile seizures).
    o Of the serious events, 35% of children had another vaccine given on same day.

Although the 2008 reports represent nearly half the number of reports in a single season as was noted over 16 seasons in the previous analysis set, conclusions regarding potential incidence cannot be drawn from these data due to the spontaneous and somewhat subjective nature of the reporting, and also missing or incomplete information regarding the estimated number of vaccinations that occurred.

Overall, TIV was considered safe and well-tolerated, as described above. Additionally, no safety concerns were noted in studies of children who received 2010/2011 TIV following their receipt of pandemic vaccine(s)[77][76].

III.4.2 Reactogenicity and adverse events - LAIV

Table 6 presents reactogenicity and adverse event data from seven studies, including one placebo-controlled and two active comparator-controlled RCTs[35][79][80], one cluster-controlled non-randomized trial[48] an open label active-comparator phase IV trial[81] and a prospective post-marketing trial with various controls (placebo, TIV, self)[82].

SAE rates, for any cause were less than or equal to 0.2%; all studies were equivalent across comparator arms (placebo or other vaccine). Investigators in most studies considered no SAEs to be potentially related to vaccination. One field study reported one potentially related event in a child [80], and one RCT reported two (Bell's Palsy and non-specific paroxysmal spell)[82].

Most studies showed no adverse event rate differences between comparator arms that authors deemed suggestive of safety signal. One RCT showed four healthcare setting-specific significant increases in medically attended adverse events (MAEs) for 9 to 17-year-olds: ED visits for acute respiratory, gastrointestinal tract events, or abdominal pain; clinic visits for adenitis/adenopathy[79]. Notably, the study used a prelicensure vaccine of a single season (2000) and made over 500 comparisons without statistical adjustment for multiple comparisons. A more recent study; however, examined a much larger data set (greater than 50,000 participants) over several seasons (2003/2004-2007/2008), with authors reporting that no pattern of rate differences among 48 MAEs that demonstrated significant differences (increases or decreases) between comparison groups suggested an LAIV safety signal[82]. Reactogenicity events were reported in up to 75% of participants depending on events, age groupings, study; these were most frequently transient cold-like symptoms, such as runny nose/congestion, cough, sore throat, or headache.

Lee et al. reported that there was no evidence of LAIV safety signal in a prospective surveillance study of the vaccine safety datalink, (a database of approximately 9.2 million adults and children in the U.S. who are health plan members)[72]. Though numbers and ages of children were not described, a figure suggested that approximately 8% of them had received LAIV.

The literature search did not return a recent VAERS-based report specific to LAIV safety in 5 to 18-year-olds; however Izurieta 2005 reporting on these spontaneous reports of adverse events in 2 to 70-year-olds (mean age 26 years) during LAIV's first two years post-licensure noted some events in children, but concluded overall that there was no evidence of unexpected serious risks with this vaccine when used according to approved indications[12], and Muhammad 2011 (who reported on TIV-associated VAERS reports) noted that LAIV reports, which were included in the comparison group in that study, constituted less than 1% of the reports in the VAERS database in children aged 2 to 17 years, as of June 30, 2006[76]. A caveat in interpretation; however, is that while that figure is relevant to the context in which it is presented (i.e. TIV versus comparison vaccines over a historical timeframe that included many years prior to LAIV licensure) it was not clear from this paper what the percentage of LAIV reports in this age group was compared to reports from other vaccines, over only the LAIV post-licensure time-frame.

III.4.3 Summary-reactogenicity and adverse events

Investigators in all articles included in the accompanying evidence tables that addressed reactogenicity and/or adverse events considered both TIV and LAIV safe and well tolerated among 5 to 18-year-olds. These studies reported no deaths and low rates or no serious adverse events (SAEs). In studies that reported SAEs, most were considered by investigators to be unrelated to vaccination. The majority of reactogenicity and adverse events (local or systemic) were considered non-serious, mild to moderate, and transient. Other studies also supported an overall safety and tolerability conclusion but may have included an unknown or low number of children. The rarity of some of the events poses power problems despite the large number of vaccine doses reviewed. A review of over 16 years of VAERS reports concerning 5 to 18-year-olds (latest season 2008/2009) reported that no new or unexpected adverse events of concern identified.

III.4.4 Safety – Risk of other infections

Heterosubtypic Influenza
Several studies in Canada during the 2008/2009 pandemic all supported each other in showing an increased risk of H1N1 infection associated with prior receipt of seasonal TIV[17)(83]. Though potential confounding could not be ruled out, further assessment of confounders reported the same overall finding with strengthened conviction [84]. The above included few TIV vaccinated children, but two other studies (one an RCT) also demonstrated significant increased risk for pandemic influenza infection in 12 to 18-year-olds in Japan[85] and 1 to 15-year-olds in Hong Kong that year [58]. [xii] In the following year of that study (which took place during the second wave of pandemic activity)[23]; authors reported protection against pandemic influenza by seasonal TIV; however the finding was supported only by serological data (PCR-confirmed data showed non-significant VE of -0.32) and confounding of seroresponses by unequal prior pandemic infection between the groups appeared possible.

Studies that included 5 to 18-year-olds from the UK, Australia, Spain, and the US all failed to detect a significant effect of TIV vaccination on the risk of pandemic H1N1 infection [86)-(90]. Two reported decreases in risk of H1N1 infection (in France) [91]; or hospitalizations (in Argentina)[92]. Rosella (2011) cautioned that many confounders were apparent in some of these studies [84].

The mechanism behind the increased risk of H1N1 infection following TIV is not clear.

III.5 Summary

Overall efficacy/effectiveness of TIV in children within the 5 to 18-year-old range was frequently demonstrated at 65% to 85%. Efficacy/effectiveness of LAIV vaccination was less conclusively demonstrated in the studies meeting this review's inclusion criteria, and was <40% in all but one study included in the review. The LAIV studies included in this review tended to be more specific to precisely the 5 to 18 year-old age group than were the TIV articles (being largely focused on

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[xii] The vaccine used in Hong Kong was the same brand as one used in Canada. Note also that though randomized TIV-vaccinated children demonstrated significantly increased risk for pandemic flu in this paper (RRs were 2.58 to 2.74, depending on adjustments), conclusions drawn by the authors do not reflect this finding.

school-based vaccination programs), but also tended to have fewer high-level and good quality efficacy/effectiveness articles, as well as fewer with the most influenza-specific outcome of laboratory-confirmed influenza. They also stemmed from fewer independent data sets.

IV. OVERALL SUMMARY

Influenza vaccination of 5 to 18-year-olds with TIV or LAIV vaccines approved for use in Canada for that age group at the time of this literature search were considered safe and immunogenic over all the reviewed studies. TIV vaccines showed efficacy/effectiveness that varied somewhat between studies but was frequently in moderate to high ranges (65% to 85%). LAIV efficacy/effectiveness was high in one study but less than 40% in all others. It is unclear if relatively poor effectiveness reflected from many of the included studies is related to a gap in high quality evidence noted for the literature specific to inclusion criteria of the current review (i.e., age group, publication dates, etc.).

Community benefits via mass vaccination of school children were well demonstrated in segregated (Hutterite) communities in Canada and also suggested by review of Japanese mortality rates in relation to that country's legally mandated schoolchildren influenza vaccination policy of many years' duration, but less evident across American urban and/or rural settings with schoolchildren vaccination programs. Apart from the unclear results noted above, other issues that emerged in the literature but were subject to evidence gaps include whether benefits of annual vaccination of children might be offset by influenza vaccination-related increases in susceptibility to other infections, such as pandemic strains of influenza.

V.   TABLES

Table 1. Efficacy/Effectiveness of TIV

Evidence for TIV Efficacy/Effectiveness

STUDY DETAILS					SUMMARY	
Study	**Vaccine**	**Study Design**	**Participants**	**Summary of Key Findings Using Text or Data**	**Level of Evidence**	**Quality**
Belongia EA, Kieke BA, Donahue JG, et al. Influenza vaccine effectiveness in Wisconsin during the 2007-2008 season: comparison of interim and final results. Vaccine 2011 Sep 2; 29(38):6558-6563.	TIV Sanofi Pasteur Lineage mismatch for type B viruses during this season Subjects classified as vaccinated if received vaccine ≥ 14 days prior to acute respiratory illness onset. Children <9years received two doses (or a single dose if had received in prior season)	Prospective community cohort with test-negative case-control analyses Enrollment over a 10-week period during 2007/2008 influenza season Cases: RT-PCR-confirmed positive influenza Controls: RT-PCR confirmed negative for influenza Vaccination status obtained from immunization registry US	1,914 community residents (aged 6 months to 65+ years) who presented with ILI during influenza epidemic period. Enrolled through in-patient or out-patient medical encounter Median age 27 for cases and 16 for controls *Excluded*: n=2353 who did not meet clinical criteria for symptoms or illness duration + n=55 partially vaccinated children + n=6 others Children 5-17 years old grouped together with adults to 49 years of age in analysis *(results for other age groups not shown here)* n Cases (5-49 years old) = 567 including n=215 (37.9%) 5-17-year-olds n Controls (5-49 years old)=564 including n=266 (47.2%) 5-17-year-olds	**Outcome: VE against medically attended, laboratory confirmed influenza (rRT-PCR and viral culture)** VE=100 × (1 – adjusted odds ratio). A logistic regression model adjusted for age, week of enrollment, and high risk medical condition. **Results:** VE for all 5-49-year-olds Unadjusted:40 % Adjusted: 38% (95% CI 17-53%) VE for subset of above that were tested 0-3 days after illness onset (above was 0-7 days after illness onset) Unadjusted: 49% Adjusted: 48% (26-63%) (Number of 5-17-year-olds in 0-3 day test set not reported) **Summary:** Moderate effectiveness of the 2007-2008 TIV against medically-attended lab confirmed influenza demonstrated for 5-49-year-olds, but the effect specific to 5-18-year-olds	Level II-2	Poor External validity regarding 5-18-year-olds marred by age grouping of the analysis

Evidence for TIV Efficacy/Effectiveness

STUDY DETAILS					SUMMARY	
Study	Vaccine	Study Design	Participants	Summary of Key Findings Using Text or Data	Level of Evidence	Quality
			Study included subjects with high risk conditions: 14% of cases and 20% of controls (all ages)	cannot be determined.		

Charu V, Viboud C, Simonsen L, et al. Influenza-related mortality trends in japanese and american seniors: Evidence for the indirect mortality benefits of vaccinating schoolchildren. Plos One. 2011;6:e26282.	TIV
	
	Japanese TIV of years 1978-2006
		Ecological
		Population-based data during (1978-1994) and after cessation of (1995-2006) mandatory school children vaccination program in Japan.
		
		Concurrent control: USA.
		
		Effects quantified using multivariate negative binomial regression adjusting for age and dominant virus subtype
		
		Addressed many methodological issues that were criticized in related, previous study of Reichert et al. (2001).
			Vaccinees: Japanese schoolchildren (aged 7-15)
			
			Vaccine coverage estimated as ~50%-85% in 3-15-year-olds per season until the 1993-1994 seasons. Near nil in 1994/1995 with a slow rise after 2000 ~+6%/year
			
			Outcome population:
			Japanese senior citizens
			
			(note that public policy in Japan did not target seniors for vaccination until after abolishment of the schoolchildren vaccination policy-most of the country's vaccine was given to school children pre-1995; from 2000-2006 vaccine coverage in seniors rose from ~17% to ~53%)
			
			Comparator group: US senior citizens (no mandatory children's vaccine program)
				Outcomes assessed:
				Indirect effectiveness of mandatory schoolchildren vaccination program on age-specific influenza-related (excess) winter all-cause and P&I mortality rates in senior citizens
				
				Results:
				- Average influenza-related excess mortality rates increased after cessation of children's vaccine program:
				
				  Crude: increased by 93%
				
				  Adjusted: increased by 113%
				
				  Before versus after (p<0.04)
				
				- Over the same time period (before versus after 1994). In the USA, no difference in excess mortality rates
				
				- Increased excess mortality more pronounced as age increased (26%-114% increase across the five age subgroups)
				
				- During vaccination program, Japanese excess mortality rates* significantly lower than US rates (p=0.001)
				
				- After cessation of the program Japanese excess mortality rates* became similar to those in USA (p=0.18)
				*Rates were adjusted for differences between population structure of countries.
					Level II-3	Good
						
						Weaknesses of ecologic al studies in general are captured by the 'level' rating. Within those limitations, study appears well-considered

Evidence for TIV Efficacy/Effectiveness

STUDY DETAILS					SUMMARY	
Study	Vaccine	Study Design	Participants	Summary of Key Findings Using Text or Data	Level of Evidence	Quality
				- Controlling for increased circulation of A/H3N2 subtype (that occurred after school program discontinued) adjusted excess mortality in seniors during versus after the program timeframe was: USA: no significant differences; Japan: 0.64 (95% CI [0.49-0.83]). (i.e. 36% (17-51%). Reduction in excess influenza mortality) - This protective effect corresponded to a decrease of 992 (335-1825) excess P&I deaths in senior citizens per influenza season (7.5 [2.8-14.4]/100,000) **Summary:** Mandatory schoolchildren influenza vaccination in Japan was associated with a 36% adjusted influenza-related mortality reduction among Japanese seniors, with ~1000 influenza deaths /influenza season avoided. Correction of several methodological issues of a previous study (Reichert) did not change overall conclusions although magnitude of apparent herd effect was lower than reported by that study.		
Cowling BJ, Fang VJ, Nishiura H, et al. Increased risk of noninfluenza respiratory virus infections associated with receipt of	TIV Vaxigrip (Sanofi-Pasteur) 2008/2009 seasonal vaccine, 0.5 ml	RCT, double blind, placebo controlled (pilot year of study) 2008/2009 season Pre- pandemic	Invited, non-immunocompromised 6-15-year-olds: N=115 n TIV=69 n placebo=46	**Outcomes assessed:** Acute upper respiratory tract infection (ARI), ARI with fever (FARI), RT-PCR confirmed seasonal influenza infection, serology (infection inferred from HAI ≥. Four-fold increased titre between one-month post-vaccination and mid-study or between mid-study and end study). **Results:** FARI or ARI Incidence rates	Level 1	Poor to Fair Lack of significance may be power-related. Wide confidence

Evidence for TIV Efficacy/Effectiveness

STUDY DETAILS					SUMMARY	
Study	Vaccine	Study Design	Participants	Summary of Key Findings Using Text or Data	Level of Evidence	Quality

inactivated influenza vaccine. Clinical Infectious Diseases. 2012;54:1778-1783.	Placebo: saline
	
	One dose only in all children
	
	Vaccine administration completed December 2008; regional peak seasonal influenza activity ~ February 2009.
		Data sources: incidence rates by parent report (daily diary + bi-weekly nurse phone call + nurse home visit upon symptoms). Other outcomes lab-confirmed following symptomatic illness
		
		Hong Kong
		
		NCT00792051
			Predominantly pre-teen aged
			
			n(6-11)=103, n(12-15)=12
				Overall N=134 ARI episodes, including n=49 FARI
				
				NSD between TIV and placebo recipients; TIV/placebo RR (95% CI) over 272 days median follow-up:
				
				Winter
				
				  ARI 0.92 (0.57-1.50) p=0.74
				
				  FARI 0.81 (0.34-1.92) p=0.63
				
				Summer
				
				  ARI 1.30 (0.78-2.18) p=0.31
				
				  FARI 1.49 (0.65-3.38) p=0 .33
				
				"Winter" coincided with regional seasonal influenza outbreak period. "Summer" period (from mid-study serum collection ~mid April to end of study), overlapped at its later portion with regional pandemic influenza activity.
				
				RT-PCR –confirmed seasonal influenza (rate per 1000 person-years of follow-up, 95% CI)
				
				  TIV: 58 (19-180)
				
				  Placebo: 88 (28-270)
				
				  RR=0.66 (0.13-3.27) NSD p=0.61
				
				(Above rates based on <10 confirmed seasonal influenza cases; n=3 in each study arm. Also, overall high loss to follow up in obtaining swabs for RT-PCR: 55% of FARI episodes lost to follow-up [loss NSD between treatment
						intervals

Evidence for TIV Efficacy/Effectiveness

STUDY DETAILS					SUMMARY	
Study	Vaccine	Study Design	Participants	Summary of Key Findings Using Text or Data	Level of Evidence	Quality
				arms]). Serology		
				97/115 (84%) had paired sera available for winter period		
				106/115 (92%) had paired sera available for summer period		
				Infection with any seasonal influenza subtype in either period:		
				TIV n=13, rate*=252 (147-435)		
				Placebo n=18, rate*=530 (334-841)		
				p=0.04		
				*Rate per 1000 person-years follow up and adjusted for cross-reactive antibody (95% CI)		
				(authors appear to have added PCR-confirmed cases into serology rate analysis, presumably where serology samples were missing but not discussed)		
				Summary: No statistically significant effectiveness of 2008/2009 Vaxigrip against ARI, FARI, or lab-confirmed seasonal influenza demonstrated; however, low numbers of subjects analyzed, low numbers of cases, and wide confidence intervals. Serology data suggestive of protection; note potential confounding of serology data due to serological responses to vaccination.		
Cowling BJ, Ng S, Ma ES, et al. Protective	TIV Vaxigrip (Sanofi-	RCT, double blind, placebo controlled	Invited convenience sample of 6-17-year-olds, non-immunocompromised	**Outcomes assessed:** Primary: influenza infection as confirmed by serology (HAI ≥ four-fold increased titre between one-month post-	Level 1	Fair

Evidence for TIV Efficacy/Effectiveness

STUDY DETAILS					SUMMARY	
Study	**Vaccine**	**Study Design**	**Participants**	**Summary of Key Findings Using Text or Data**	**Level of Evidence**	**Quality**
efficacy against pandemic influenza of seasonal influenza vaccination in children in hong kong: A randomized controlled trial. Clinical Infectious Diseases. 2012;55:695-702.	Pasteur) 2009/2010 seasonal vaccine, 0.5 ml Placebo: saline IM One dose only in all children A/H1N1 and A/H3N2 components were the same as in the previous season (first year of same study) H3N2 circulated many months after vaccination and was mismatched to vaccine strain.	(second year of study) 2009/2010 season Study enrollment extended over ~ six months, overlapping with first and second waves of pdmH1N1 outbreaks in the area Data sources: incidence rates of ARI by parent report (daily diary + bi-weekly nurse phone call + nurse home visit upon symptoms). Parent reports triggered lab testing by RT-PCR. Serology on all; however imputation performed to ITT population for missing data *(table S4 suggests ~10% of subjects subject to imputation)*	Randomized 3:2 (TIV:Placebo) Intention to treat (ITT): N=796 n TIV=479 n placebo=317 Included n=85 from first (pilot) year of study, who were re-randomized to treatment groups 2/3 of study population was pre-teen aged; 33% of TIV and 33% of placebo recipients were 12-17 years old.	vaccination and end-study approximately 11 months later) or RT-PCR (VE expressed as 1-incidence rate ratio). Secondary: Rates of acute upper respiratory tract infection (ARI), rates of ARI with fever (FARI). **Results:** -757 ARI episodes reported but follow-up swabs only taken from 229 of them *(~70% loss to follow-up, proportion loss per study arm not described)* - Of the 229 ARI- swabs, 35 cases of influenza B, eight cases of influenza H3N2, 0 cases seasonal H1N1, 13 cases pdmH1N1 *(n per study arm not reported)*. - Of 738 swabs from asymptomatic subjects in whose household an ARI had been reported, two cases of pdmH1N1 confirmed Seasonal Influenza B VE versus RT-PCR confirmed influenza B: 0.66 (95% CI [0.31-0.83]) p<0.01 VE versus serology-confirmed influenza B: 0.83 (0.46-0.95) p<0.01 Seasonal H3N2 No vaccine effectiveness demonstrated - Too few RT-PCR confirmed samples for valid results (n=8 over both study arms; 95% CI of VE=-3.60-.74) - Serology data: 95% CI of VE=-0.28-0.67		

Evidence for TIV Efficacy/Effectiveness

STUDY DETAILS					SUMMARY	
Study	Vaccine	Study Design	Participants	Summary of Key Findings Using Text or Data	Level of Evidence	Quality
		Hong Kong NCT00792051		No circulating seasonal H1N1 this season Pandemic H1N1 (not included as vaccine component) - Too few RT-PCR confirmed samples for valid results (n=15 over both study arms; 95% CI of VE=-2.86-0.55) - Serology data: significant VE 0.47 (0.15-0.67) p=0.01 No adjustment of VE estimates described related to prior or early study H1N1 infection of subjects, enrolment time periods related to peak wave periods, etc. H1N1 infection prior to study start reportedly a high proportion of school-age children in the region. Potential for confounding of disease-induced immunity or serological change. FARI or ARI Incidence rates No VE demonstrable against FARI or ARI episodes NSD between TIV and placebo recipients. **Summary:** 2009/2010 Vaxigrip showed no VE against ARI or FARI or H3N2 infection. VE was demonstrated against influenza B. VE against increased pdmH1N1 titres (≥four-fold) over the entire study period was significant but not against PCR-confirmed pdmH1N1 (low n's). TIV protection against serologically confirmed pdmH1N1 (not contained in the vaccine) contrasts opposite findings from the first year of this same trial (i.e. increased risk of pandemic influenza after receipt of TIV containing the same H1N1 and H3N2 components but a different B component).		

Evidence for TIV Efficacy/Effectiveness

STUDY DETAILS					SUMMARY	
Study	Vaccine	Study Design	Participants	Summary of Key Findings Using Text or Data	Level of Evidence	Quality
Fujieda M, Maeda A, Kondo K, et al. Inactivated influenza vaccine effectiveness in children under 6 years of age during the 2002-2003 season. Vaccine 2006;24(7):957-963.	TIV 2002/2003 formulation of Japan Two doses two-four weeks apart; 0.2ml	Cohort study, multi-centre 2002/2003 season Japan	Children aged <6 years, paediatric clinic recruitment Present table only presents results of the subgroup aged 5.0-5.9 years. N=360 $n_{vaccinated}$ =242 $n_{unvaccinated}$ =118	**Primary outcome:** Effectiveness against ILI (acute febrile illness during the highest epidemic period of influenza in each study area; highest temperature of child reported for each week) **Results:** Vaccine effectiveness OR (95% CI): Crude: 19% (-18-44%;p=0.271) Adjusted*: 20% (-16-45%; p=0.240) *Adjusted for vaccination status, age, siblings, physician visits for cold symptoms with in the last six months, disease onset during the previous influenza season **Summary:** In this age subgroup (5.0-5.9-year-olds), 2002/2003 TIV (Japan) did not provide significant protection against influenza	Level II-2	Fair
Katayose M, Hosoya M, Haneda T, et al. The effectiveness of trivalent inactivated influenza vaccine in children over six consecutive influenza seasons. Vaccine	TIV Two doses 3-4 weeks apart regardless of previous receipt of TIV. Each dose=6µg of each of three HAs (0.2ml containing 30µg/ml per HA).	Prospective cohort, non-randomized, community-based study. One community over six consecutive seasons (2002/2003-2007/2008). Primary data source: health admin records from all local hospitals and clinics	All children between ages 6 months and 6 years accessing the community hospital and all clinics for ARI with fever during influenza seasons (*this table reports only data from children aged 5-<6 years*). 5-<6-year-olds: N=2646 n(unvaccinated)=1273 n(vaccinated) - 1373 Note TIV was offered to all children in the community, with 6 month – 6-	**Outcomes Assessed:** VE against Influenza (confirmed by rapid diagnostic tests in medically attended children with acute respiratory infectious symptoms and fever >38.0°C who presented during the influenza surveillance period) and against influenza-hospitalizations. **Results** VE [(1-RR) x 100] versus influenza A Over all six seasons: VE against illness=35% (p<0.01) VE against hospitalization=33%, NSD	Level II-2	Fair

Evidence for TIV Efficacy/Effectiveness

STUDY DETAILS					SUMMARY	
Study	Vaccine	Study Design	Participants	Summary of Key Findings Using Text or Data	Level of Evidence	Quality

2011;29(9):1844-1849.	2002/2003 well matched. All other years at least one mismatched HA and usually two.	serving children in this relatively isolated community
		
		Japan
			year-old uptake averaging 52.9% of the total population
			
			Excluded from VE analysis: presenting children who had only received their first dose of vaccine (~11% of total vaccinees 6 months - 6 years old)
				Particular seasons (versus illness only):
				
				  No significant VE for 2003/2004, 2004/2005, or 2006/2007
				
				  Other years VE range 49%-78%, p<0.01)
				
				VE versus influenza B
				
				Over the only two seasons with Influenza B outbreaks:
				
				  VE against illness=58% (p<0.01)
				
				  VE against hospitalization=80%, NSD
				
				Particular seasons (versus illness only):
				
				  2002/2003: VE=71% (p<0.01)
				
				  2004/2005: VE=47% (p<0.01)
				
				Number needed to vaccinate
				
				To prevent one influenza-associated febrile respiratory illness; NNV (95% CI):
				
				  Influenza A 17 (13-28); Influenza B: 7 (5-9)
				
				To prevent one influenza-associated hospitalization; NNV (lower CI only; upper not available) :
				
				  Influenza A 355 (>159); Influenza B: 101 (>82)
				
				Note low Incidence of hospitalization (0.9 per 100 in		

Evidence for TIV Efficacy/Effectiveness

STUDY DETAILS					SUMMARY	
Study	Vaccine	Study Design	Participants	Summary of Key Findings Using Text or Data	Level of Evidence	Quality
				unvaccinated 5-6 year-olds, cumulative-six years) **Summary:** TIV effectiveness against influenza illness in 5-<6-year-olds in Japan was demonstrated in four/six seasons studied. Hospitalization for influenza was not significantly changed; however, note that rates were low in this age group.		
Kawai N, Ikematsu H, Iwaki N, et al. A prospective, internet-based study of the effectiveness and safety of influenza vaccination in the 2001-2002 influenza season. Vaccine. 2003;21:4507-4513.	TIV 2001-2002 formulation of Japan Match to circulating strains was "compatible". Vaccination done once or twice as requested by the subject *(note that many subjects >9 years old were vaccinated twice)*. Second dose from one-four weeks after first as requested.	Prospective cohort. Multicentre: in 38 widely distributed clinics 2001-2002 influenza season Doctors enrolled vaccinated subjects and age/sex matched non-vaccinees from same clinic. Data source: self-report questionnaire. Doctors input their patients' data to internet-based system at the end of influenza season Japan	Consenting clinic patients. N=8841 all ages, overall dominated by adults. Also includes those with health conditions. 0-15-year-old subset: No vaccine n=303, including 193 healthy (64%) mean age ± SD=0.6 ± 4.4 years 6-15-year-olds included in group: n=146 (48.2%). One dose n=251, including 196 healthy (78%) mean age ± SD=8.8 ± 4.4 years	**Outcomes assessed:** 1) VE against ILI (defined as presence of all four of following: sudden onset, fever over 38°C, sore throat, and general fatigue). 2) VE against influenza confirmed by one or more of: commercial rapid diagnosis kits, virus isolation, or HAI (four-fold titer increase); primarily by rapid kit. **Results:** ILI confirmed by symptomatic report in 1.44% of entire cohort (127 of 8841, including all ages). Reviewer notes low influenza circulation in Tokyo surveillance data of that year and stringent ILI definition 0-15-year-olds - ILI: # cases (%) ; VE* (95% CI) Unvaccinated n=41 (13.53%) Once n=11(4.38%) ; VE: 67.6% (51.9-83.3) p<.001 Twice n=21 (2.10%); VE: 84.5% (78.4-90.6) p<.001(two-dose group also significantly lower infection rate than one-dose group [p<.05]) In subgroup analysis (~2 year-subsets) all age groups had significantly higher VE with two doses than one	Level II-2	Fair

Evidence for TIV Efficacy/Effectiveness

STUDY DETAILS					SUMMARY	
Study	Vaccine	Study Design	Participants	Summary of Key Findings Using Text or Data	Level of Evidence	Quality
	Dosage per inoculation: >14 years=0.5 ml 6–13 years= 0.3 ml 30 ug of three antigens		6-15-year-olds included in group: n=169 (67.3%). Two doses n=999, including 770 healthy (77%). mean age ± SD=7.5 ± 4.4 years 6-15-year-olds included in group: n=525 (52.5%).	*1-OR. Note multiple regression analysis showed age to be significant independent factor over all ages; however stratifications within 0-15 year not examined. Reviewer notes unvaccinated children appear younger than other group; however, Figure 2 age information allows crude estimation of VE versus ILI in 6-15-year-olds, and it appears higher than those for 0-15-year-olds together; crude two-dose VE also appears higher in children over 10 years than children 4-9 years). Lab-confirmed influenza Over all age groups, n=75 (59%) of 127 ILI cases were lab-tested, with n=65 (87%) testing positive (eight/nine tested by > one method concordant positive by all tests; one/nine apparent false negative by rapid test was included as case after positive HAI test). (i.e. in 7% Quebec sample of rapid test accuracy, zero false positives and 11% false negative rate) 0-15-year-olds - # cases (%**); VE (95% CI) Unvaccinated n=21 (6.93%) Once n=8(3.19%); VE: 54.0% (27.8-77.0) p<0.05 Twice n=14(1.40%); VE: 79.8% (70.3-89.3 p<0.001) **% of total 0-15-year-olds in the vaccination group described (i.e. denominator not related to ILI group- this is not test-negative/positive expression of data) **Summary:** In this large-scale, prospective, multicentre trial in Japan		

Evidence for TIV Efficacy/Effectiveness

STUDY DETAILS					SUMMARY	
Study	Vaccine	Study Design	Participants	Summary of Key Findings Using Text or Data	Level of Evidence	Quality
				using a TIV compatibly matched to circulating strains, one dose of vaccination was effective in children, but two doses gave better protection (including in older children 10-12 and 13-15 years old). *Reviewer notes that although 0-15 year analysis group had more young children than vaccine groups, results appear consistent when examining 6-15-year-old subsets.*		
Kawai S, Nanri S, Ban E, Inokuchi M, Tanaka T, Tokumura M, Kimura K, Sugaya N. Influenza vaccination of schoolchildren and influenza outbreaks in a school. Clinical Infectious Diseases. 2011;53:130-136.	TIV Japanese formulations of 1984-2007 Two doses, one month apart	Retrospective time series Data source: school records over 24 influenza seasons Key dates: 1983/1984-1987/1988- compulsory vaccination period 1988/1989-1993/1994- quasi-compulsory vaccination period (opt-out possible) 1994/1995 – 1998/1999 no-vaccination period 1999/2000-2002/2003 Low-voluntary	All pupils of a single elementary school in an urban area of Tokyo, over a 24- year period. N=780-846 per year, 6-12 years old Class cancellation data of 1994-1995 season excluded because cancellation policy was temporarily suspended for that year. Years of small-scale influenza activity (6/24 seasons, as per Tokyo surveillance data) excluded from correlation analysis since influenza activity low then, regardless of vaccination.	**Outcomes assessed:** Influenza vaccination rates, numbers of class cancellation days (re: school policy to cancel class for three days upon threshold of 20% absence in the class), weekly absentee rates during influenza period. **Results:** Absenteeism control rate (third week October; mean ± SD) 0.81%± 0.27% Influenza peak week absenteeism increased ~four-fold over control (p<0.0001): 3.54%±1.38 Vaccine Coverage ; Cancellation days ; Absentee Rate (mean %) (mean no.) (mean December-March weekly %) Compulsory period: 96.5% ; 1.3 ; 2.5% Quasi-compulsory period: 66.4% ; 8.3 ; 3.2%	Level II-3	Fair

Evidence for TIV Efficacy/Effectiveness

STUDY DETAILS					SUMMARY	
Study	Vaccine	Study Design	Participants	Summary of Key Findings Using Text or Data	Level of Evidence	Quality
		vaccination period 2003/2004-2006/2007 High-voluntary vaccination period		No-vaccination period: 2.4% ; 20.5 ; 4.3% Low-voluntary period: 38.9% ; 9.3 ; 3.9% High- voluntary period: 78.6% ; 7.0 ; 3.8% Significant inverse correlation between vaccine coverage rates and: - number of class cancellation days (r=-0.644; p=0.0042) - absentee rate (r=-0.668 ;p=0.0018) over individual seasons. Viral strains Influenza B played a major role in school outbreaks: - caused both largest and second largest school outbreak - B outbreaks occurred in the school even with high vaccination coverage rates and good match of vaccine to circulating virus. In contrast, influenza A outbreaks in the school (mostly H3N2-related) only occurred when circulating strains were antigenically drifted from vaccine strains. **Summary:** Authors conclude mass vaccination of schoolchildren 6-12 years of age was effective to reduce number of class cancellation days and school absenteeism in one elementary school in Tokyo, with cancellation days showing the clearer effects of the two measures. *Reviewer notes that data demonstrate correlation;*		

Evidence for TIV Efficacy/Effectiveness

STUDY DETAILS					SUMMARY	
Study	Vaccine	Study Design	Participants	Summary of Key Findings Using Text or Data	Level of Evidence	Quality
				however, pertinent information related to other potential confounding variables over the timeframe is missing/not considered.		
Kwong JC, Ge H, Rosella LC, et al. School-based influenza vaccine delivery, vaccination rates, and healthcare use in the context of a universal influenza immunization program: An ecological study. Vaccine. 2010;28:2722-2729.	TIV

Canadian-approved vaccines of the given study years | Ecological

Evaluates effects of school-based delivery of influenza vaccines in the context of a universal vaccination program.

2000/2001-2006/2007 (over seven influenza seasons)

Comparison groups:

Public Health Units (PHUs) with versus without school-based delivery (defined as providing ≥50% vaccine availability at school to school-age children)

Data sources: population-based survey and health administrative data | **Vaccinees**
Universal vaccination available in Ontario; however study focuses on 4-11 and 12-19-year-old vaccinees in school-based delivery program.

Vaccination coverage in all age groups estimated using Canadian Community Health Survey

Outcome measure group:
Entire population of Ontario (stratified for following age groups): <2, 2-3, 4-11, 12-19, 20-49, 50-64, >65-year-olds | **Outcome measures:**
P&I visits to doctors' office and EDs, and hospitalizations. For P&I (primary) or (secondary) a less specific composite of P&I and other respiratory illnesses and otitis media.

Results:
Vaccination rates similar in all other age groups between PHUs but significantly higher in school aged children from PHUs with school-based delivery

   -12-19-year-olds: 39% [95% CI, 35-43 %] versus 30% [28- 32%] , p <0.001

   - 4-11-year-olds: 36% [33-41%] versus 24% [22-26%], p<0.001
Doctors' office visits

   12-19-year-olds: decreased by 24%, p=0.03

(14.1 versus 18.4 visits per 100,000 person-weeks)

   <1-year-olds: increased by 25%, p=0.05

(82.4 versus 65.7 visits per 100,000 person-weeks)

   4-11-year-olds: decreased by 19%, p=0.08

(23.4 versus 28.7 visits per 100,000 person-weeks) | Level II-3 | Good |

Evidence for TIV Efficacy/Effectiveness

STUDY DETAILS					SUMMARY	
Study	Vaccine	Study Design	Participants	Summary of Key Findings Using Text or Data	Level of Evidence	Quality
		Ontario, Canada		All other age groups and for all ages together: <5% NSD between + / – school program PHUs ED visits and hospitalization NSD all age groups and overall population **Summary:** In the context of a Canadian universal immunization program, the ~10% greater uptake by school-age children in regions with school-delivery was associated with a significant decrease (of 24%) in influenza-related doctors' office visits for 12-19-year-olds but not for other age groups or other outcomes. This decrease was offset by an increase in infants' visits of similar magnitude (25%; p=0.05). No evidence of herd protection but authors note high vaccine coverage in other age groups.		
Kwong JC, Stukel TA, Lim J, et al. The effect of universal influenza immunization on mortality and health care use. Plos Medicine. 2008;5:1440-1452.	TIV Canadian-approved vaccines of the given study years	Ecological Association between increased vaccine coverage and influenza outcomes (pre- versus post-intervention, using concurrent controls) **Intervention:** Universal immunization program (Ontario)	Population of Canadian provinces 1997 to 2004, excluding those that were ineligible for universal, publicly insured health care services. N(5-19-year-olds)=6,161,000 Data not presented here, for other age groups. Vaccination status survey data only available for ≥ 12-year-olds; hence 5-11-year-old vaccination rates not reported.	**Outcomes assessed:** Difference between observed and expected (modeled baseline) influenza-associated outcomes during influenza season: mortality, P&I hospitalizations, P&I ED use, and P&I doctors' office visits (excluding vaccination visits). **Results:** Vaccination rates in 12-19-year-olds increased (from pre- to post-intervention) significantly more in Ontario than control provinces (p <0.001) Ontario: from 16% to 31%. 15% increase (95% CI 13-17) Control: from 6% to 11%. 5% increase (95% CI 4-11)	Level II-3	Fair

Evidence for TIV Efficacy/Effectiveness

STUDY DETAILS					SUMMARY	
Study	Vaccine	Study Design	Participants	Summary of Key Findings Using Text or Data	Level of Evidence	Quality

		Concurrent control: no universal immunization programs (other Canadian provinces, combined)
		
		Influenza seasons: Pre-intervention 1996/1997
		
		Post-intervention
		
		Mean of three seasons: 2000/2001, 2003, 2005
		
		Data sources: Statistics Canada databases and Health Survey; provincial health services administrative data
		
		Canada
				Influenza outcome event rates in 5-19 year-olds
				
				Annual event rates/100,000 presented as: from pre- to post- ; RR (95% CI), with Ontario:control ratio below
				
				Hospitalization:
				
				  Ontario: from 2.1 to 1.3; 0.63 (0.29-1.39)
				
				  Control: from 2.0 to 5.0; 2.56 (1.42-4.61)
				
				  Ratio Ontario: control: 0.25, p=0.005
				
				ED visits:
				
				  Ontario: from 93.8 to 48.4;0.52 (0.48-0.55)
				
				  Control: from 54.5 to 98.5; 1.81 (1.68-1.94)
				
				  Ratio Ontario: control: 0.29, p<0.001
				
				Doctors' office visits:
				
				  Ontario: from 637.4 to 274.9; 0.43 (0.42-0.44)
				
				  Control:430.2 to 481.7; 1.12 (1.09-1.15)
				
				  Ratio Ontario: control: 0.39, p<0.001
				
				  Mortality - NSD and not broken out for ages<50 years
				
				Summary:
				A relative ~10% differential increase (versus other provinces) in vaccination of Ontario's 12-19-year-olds (to 31% coverage) was associated with ~ 65-70% relative		

Evidence for TIV Efficacy/Effectiveness

STUDY DETAILS					SUMMARY	
Study	Vaccine	Study Design	Participants	Summary of Key Findings Using Text or Data	Level of Evidence	Quality
				decreases (ratio-based) in childrens' influenza-related health care use. Influenza-attributed health care use among 5-19-year-olds decreased markedly in Ontario but increased in control provinces over this time frame, despite control province 12-19-year-olds also increasing vaccination rate (to 11% coverage).		
Loeb M, Russell ML, Moss L, et al. Effect of influenza vaccination of children on infection rates in hutterite communities A randomized trial.JAMA. 2010;303:943-950.	TIV (Vaxigrip; Sanofi Pasteur) Control: Hepatitis A vaccine 0.5 mL.- one dose (+second for < 9-year-olds previously unvaccinated, 0.5 mL 4 weeks later. Good match for circulating A strains, mismatch for B NCT00877396	Double blinded, cluster RCT with parallel assignment. Model assessed time- to-event for RT-PCR confirmation (Cox proportional hazards regression model) 2008/2009 season Alberta, Saskatchewan and Manitoba, Canada.	Hutterite colonies n colonies=49 randomized to receive either a) study vaccine (TIV; n=25, but only 22 completed study), or b) control vaccine (hep; n=24). Healthy 3-15-year-olds within colonies were eligible for vaccination. All others were 'non-recipients', included in outcome measure analysis. *(9.7% and 11.6% of 'nonrecipients' in study and control populations, respectively, received influenza vaccine outside study as high-risk individuals)* N participants included in analysis (i.e. excluding dropouts, etc.)=3273 Influenza vaccine colonies: n recipients=502	**Outcomes assessed:** Indirect protection to community by vaccinating healthy school-aged children. Primary outcome: RT-PCR-confirmed influenza in symptomatic non-recipients of vaccine. Secondary: direct effectiveness, ILI, influenza outbreaks, otitis media, physician visits, antimicrobial prescriptions, absenteeism, lower respiratory tract infection, hospitalizations, death. **Results:** Mean vaccine coverage of healthy 3-15-year-olds: TIV: 83% (range 53-100%) Control: 79% (range 50-100%) Overall community % influenza-vaccinated: TIV communities: 38% Control communities: 8% Effectiveness of influenza vaccination against confirmed influenza (VE=[1-HR] x 100) *Indirect* (on non-recipients): VE=61% (95% CI 8- 83%, p=0.03)	Level 1	Good

Evidence for TIV Efficacy/Effectiveness

STUDY DETAILS					SUMMARY	
Study	Vaccine	Study Design	Participants	Summary of Key Findings Using Text or Data	Level of Evidence	Quality
			n nonrecipients=1271 Control vaccine colonies: n recipients=445 n nonrecipients=1055	*Direct+Indirect* (including all participants, adjusted for outside-study influenza vaccination): VE=59% (95% CI 4-82%, p=0.04) *Direct* (healthy 3-15-year-old recipients): **VE=55% (-21-84%, p=0.11)** *Influenza outbreaks* (≥2 influenza-positive within five days) 13 influenza outbreaks in control communities (range 4-26 cases/outbreak, median=9) Six influenza outbreaks in TIV- communities (range 3-16 cases/outbreak, median=12) Influenza vaccination effectiveness versus other outcomes; HR (95% CI) Anti-microbial prescriptions: 0.58 (0.34-0.99), p=0.046 Doctor visits, respiratory illness: 0.63 (0.37-1.06), p=0.08 ILI: 0.57 (0.28-1.16), p=0.12 Otitis Media: 0.41 (0.12-1.42), p=0.16 Absenteeism (RR): 0.56 (0.31-1.20), p=0.14 Authors note limited power to detect significant differences of secondary outcomes **Summary:** Immunizing children 3-15 years of age with 2008/2009		

Evidence for TIV Efficacy/Effectiveness

STUDY DETAILS					SUMMARY	
Study	Vaccine	Study Design	Participants	Summary of Key Findings Using Text or Data	Level of Evidence	Quality
				Vaxigrip significantly protected unimmunized members of rural (Hutterite) Canadian communities.		
Maeda T, Shintani Y, Miyamoto H, et al. Prophylactic effect of inactivated influenza vaccine on young children. Pediatr Int 2002;44:43-46.	TIV Two doses 14 days apart 0.2ml	Prospective cohort study 1999/2000 season Japan	Healthy children < 83 months old. This table presents only data from the subset 5.0 years old and older) N=63 n=29 vaccinated n=34 unvaccinated Control group (no influenza vaccination within one year of enrollment) age-matched randomly assigned from hospital records	**Primary outcome:** VE against Influenza A confirmed by enzyme immunoassay membrane test, in medically attended children with febrile illness (>37.8°C) **Results:** Preventive effect against Influenza A Influenza A-positive cases: Vaccinated; n=1 Unvaccinated: n=5 **Summary:** 1999/2000 TIV was associated with less influenza A positivity in 60-82-month old children in Japan; however reviewer notes the low sample size and number of influenza cases.	Level II-2	Poor
Neuzil KM, Dupont WD, Wright PF, et al. Efficacy of inactivated and cold-adapted vaccines against influenza A infection, 1985 to 1990: the pediatric experience.	TIV/LAIV Vaccines of 1986/1987-1989/1990 (Commercial TIV; lab-produced pre-licensure LAIV). One dose only	Randomized controlled trial, double-blind Original study (Edwards, 1994) covered five influenza seasons (1985-1990) and included adults. This paper is	Children 1- <16 years at time of vaccination (data specific to children aged 1 to <6 excluded here) Subjects immunized each Fall for up to five years, remaining as originally grouped $N_{doses\ over\ 5\ years\ of\ [either\ LAIV\ or\ TIV\ or\ placebo]}$ = 1,809 (1/year/participant)	**Outcomes:** 1) Efficacy versus culture-confirmed influenza A 2) Efficacy versus influenza A- seroconversion (rate of subjects with four-fold rise in HAI titer) over influenza season (post-vaccination to post-season). **Results:** Seasonal circulating A viruses for the five years were: Y1- none (B only; data excluded)	Level I	Fair

Evidence for TIV Efficacy/Effectiveness

STUDY DETAILS					SUMMARY	
Study	Vaccine	Study Design	Participants	Summary of Key Findings Using Text or Data	Level of Evidence	Quality
Pediatr Infect Dis J 2001 Aug;20(8):733-740.	LAIV- bivalent A/H1N1 and A/H3N2 intranasal drops, 1.0 ml (0.5 ml/strain,10^6 - $10^{7.6}$ plaque-forming U/ml), + inactivated influenza B , IM. TIV 0.5 ml IM, (15μg HA each strain) + placebo intranasal Control: inactivated monovalent influenza B, IM + placebo intranasal Vaccine strains as per annual recom-mendations. 2/4 reported years had mismatch.	reanalysis of just pediatric portion, and also excludes year one because no influenza A circulated that year. US (Nashville, Tennessee)	N children=791 Not all children participated all years. Average 25% dropout rate/year (NSD between study arm or age group) replaced by annual recruitment. *Cumulative - year and naive vaccinees not described or differentiated in efficacy results* n 6-10 years: 302 n 11-15 years: 218 6-15 year group represents 66% of total children Vaccination groups: Group n(6-10year) n(11-15year) Control 102 77 LAIV 99 80 TIV 106 62 *N.B. Vaccination groups include n=5 (6-10-year-olds) and n=1 (11-15-year-olds) that only participated in year 1 (when no A virus circulated), and therefore are excluded from the study total (N=791)*	Y2-H1N1 (drifted from vaccine strain) Y3-H3N2 (drifted from vaccine strain) Y4-H1N1 (good match) Y5-H3N2 (good match) **Efficacy versus lab-confirmed influenza A Efficacy (%, 95% CI) in H1N1- circulating years:** LAIV: 95% (67-99) TIV: 91% (64-98) Influenza-positive rates (control, LAIV, TIV): 21/294, 1/311, 2/327, respectively **Efficacy in H3N2- circulating years:** LAIV: 68% (1-90) TIV: 77% (20-93) Influenza-positive rates (control, LAIV, TIV): 12/280, 4/289, 3/308, respectively NB too few culture-positive illnesses to assess above by age group. High efficacy despite circulation of antigenically drifted strains during two of the four years (one H1N1 year, one H3N2 year).		

Evidence for TIV Efficacy/Effectiveness

STUDY DETAILS					SUMMARY	
Study	Vaccine	Study Design	Participants	Summary of Key Findings Using Text or Data	Level of Evidence	Quality
				Efficacy versus influenza-season seroconversion LAIV: 78% (64-86) in H1N1 years. 26% (14-52) in H3N2 years. TIV: 67% (51-78) in H1N1 years. 65% (39-84) in H3N2 years. Rates of seroconversion (control, LAIV, TIV) H1N1 years 6-10 years: 35.0, 3.9, 8.3, respectively 11-15 years: 30.7, 6.2, 6.0, respectively H3N2 years 6-10 years: 19.6, 6.4, 5.1 11-15 years: 12.4, 19.1, 3.6, respectively **Summary:** Both LAIV and TIV showed similar high efficacy in H1N1 years (91%, 95%, respectively versus confirmed influenza) and lesser but still substantial efficacy in H3N2 years, with TIV point estimate somewhat higher than LAIV in the latter. Authors note bias between groups in seroconversion data. Reviewer notes influenza-confirmed data had high loss to follow-up and mixed effect of unknown proportion of young children (<6 years). Also,		

Evidence for TIV Efficacy/Effectiveness

STUDY DETAILS					SUMMARY	
Study	Vaccine	Study Design	Participants	Summary of Key Findings Using Text or Data	Level of Evidence	Quality
				caution interpreting differences between younger versus older 6-15-year-olds: comparability between 6-10 versus 11-15 groups uncertain.		
Nicholls S, Carroll K, Crofts J, et al. An outbreak of influenza A (H3N2) in a highly-vaccinated religious community: A retrospective cohort study. Communicable Disease & Public Health. 2004;7:272-277.	UK-recommended vaccine (unnamed subunit vaccine) of 2001-2002 season

Well-matched to circulating A viruses

Some residents had received US vaccine described as same or similar product to UK vaccine

Administered six months prior to outbreak | Retrospective cohort

Data source largely self-report of influenza-like symptoms

Some lab testing done on select patients appears technically unreliable and poorly described and not performed in children. | All residents of a segregated religious community in UK

N=350 (all ages)

40% of population aged 15 or under, >90% of population vaccinated | **Outcomes Assessed** - Self-Reported Illness Symptoms

Results:
Questionnaire response rate: 92%

Attack rate

Highest in youngest ages, decreased as age increased

5-14-year-olds: 41.5%

All ages together:

Unvaccinated: 43% (9/21)

Vaccinated in UK 45% (140/309)

Vaccinated elsewhere: 10% (2/20)

Lab confirmation in select adult volunteers established community diagnosis of influenza

VE against symptomatic illness (all ages together)

Vaccinated in UK: -5.4%

Vaccinated elsewhere: 77% (95% CI 53.2 - 88.4)

Conclusion:
A highly-vaccinated, normal, healthy closed community in UK was not protected by well-matched vaccine from an | Level 11-2 | Poor

Of poor external validity to subject of review 5-18-year-olds using Canadian vaccines |

Evidence for TIV Efficacy/Effectiveness

STUDY DETAILS					SUMMARY	
Study	Vaccine	Study Design	Participants	Summary of Key Findings Using Text or Data	Level of Evidence	Quality
				H3N2 outbreak in 2001/2002. A small number who had been vaccinated elsewhere appeared well protected.		

Ochiai H, Fujieda M, Ohfuji S, et al. Inactivated influenza vaccine effectiveness against influenza-like illness among young children in Japan--with special reference to minimizing outcome misclassification. Vaccine 2009;27(50):7031-7035.	TIV
	
	Formulation of Japan 2000/2001
	
	Two doses, two-four weeks apart
	
	0.2ml containing 30µg/ml of each HA
		Prospective cohort, multi-site
		
		2000/2001 season
		
		Vaccinees:
		
		Self-selection of vaccination by parents
		
		Unvaccinated:
		
		Enrolled one or two from same clinic, after enrolling a vaccinee
		
		Data source: self-administered questionnaires (parents and pediatricians) at start of study and weekly for parents over influenza season (15 week); at each doctor's visit for
			2353 children under 6 years of age recruited from 43 pediatric clinics over seven regions (only data from 5.0-5.9-year-olds shown here)
			
			N=284
			
			n(vaccinated)=169
			
			n(unvaccinated)=115
			
			Over all the ages studied (6months - <6 years) unvaccinated children showed several significant differences with respect to vaccinated children, including significantly more underlying illnesses. (data not available for the 5.0-5.9 year age group, specifically)
				Outcomes assessed: specific for the 5.0-5.9-year-old age category were VE versus 1) Severe ILI (acute febrile illness with fever ≥39.0°C and one or more symptoms – unny nose or nasal congestion, sore throat, cough), and 2) Medical office visits (MOV) reported simultaneously with severe ILI .
				
				Results:
				Severe ILI:
				
				  Vaccinated n=26 (15%)
				
				  Unvaccinated n=22 (19%)
				
				Adjusted* OR for vaccinees during peak epidemic period (95% CI):
				
				  0.74 (0.34–1.60) NSD
				
				MOV with Severe ILI
				
				  Vaccinated n=10 (6%)
				
				  Unvaccinated n=13 (11%)
				
				Adjusted* OR for vaccinees during peak epidemic period (95% CI):
					Level II-2	Poor

Evidence for TIV Efficacy/Effectiveness

STUDY DETAILS					SUMMARY	
Study	Vaccine	Study Design	Participants	Summary of Key Findings Using Text or Data	Level of Evidence	Quality
		pediatricians. Japan		0.34 (0.11–1.05) NSD *Adjusted for age, sex, body weight, preschool attendance, siblings, tonsillitis, atopy, allergy, influenza vaccination and disease onset during previous season, geographical area Reviewer notes that comparison groups did not demonstrate equivalent health care use: MOV for any cause was significantly higher in unvaccinated than vaccinated children,6 months - 6 years, (data not available for 5.0-5.9-year-olds specifically), even following adjustment **Summary:** VE was NSD, with wide confidence intervals. Please note the low numbers of cases and extensive adjustments related to numerous significant differences between comparison groups. Potential for health care use bias.		
Pebody RG, Andrews N, Fleming DM, et al. Age-specific vaccine effectiveness of seasonal 2010/2011 and pandemic influenza A(H1N1) 2009 vaccines in preventing influenza in the	TIV of 2010/2011 (normal, unadjuvanted, but containing 2009 pdmH1N1 as its A/H1N1 component) Defined as 'vaccinated' only if ARI	Test-negative case control 2010/2011 influenza season Data sources: primary care influenza sentinel surveillance schemes, each	>7000 ARI presenters of all ages across multiple practices and countries in UK 5-14-year-olds [n(% of total study population)]: Test-negative; controls=459 (9.7%) B cases=352 (29.1%)	**Outcomes assessed:** Age-specific, end-of-season VE of 2010/2011 TIV in preventing RT-PCR-confirmed pdmH1N12009 and influenza B infection. **Results:** (VE=1-OR with confounder adjustments including gender, surveillance scheme location, month of sample collection [and age, when data presented over all subjects rather than specific to 5-14-year-olds]) VE against pdmH1N1 infection 5-14-year-olds: VE=84% (95% CI 27-97%)	Level II-2	Good

Evidence for TIV Efficacy/Effectiveness

STUDY DETAILS					SUMMARY	
Study	Vaccine	Study Design	Participants	Summary of Key Findings Using Text or Data	Level of Evidence	Quality
United Kingdom. Epidemiol Infect 2012. Jun 13:1-11	presentation≥ 14 days post-vaccine Children received at least one dose (i.e. full versus partial vaccination not assessed; potential for VE underestimation relative to full vaccination)	comprising multiple practices, in UK (two in England, one in each of: Scotland, Northern Ireland, Wales). Vaccination data from medical records. Other questionnaire data completed by GP Multivariable linear regression included a four-level variable to evaluate effects of receipt of monovalent pdm vaccine the prior year with or without TIV in 2010/2011 as well as TIV in 2010/2011 only.	H1N1 2009 cases=198 (10.9%) (note: "H1N1 2009 cases" refers to cases in 2010/2011, infected with the 2009 strain, which circulated intensely in UK during 2010/2011) Vaccinated with 2010/2011 TIV: n=27	No significant differences (p=0.16) in VE between 5-14-year-olds and other age groups (<5-year-olds, 15-44 years,45-64 years, 65+ years) No difference in VE of TIV 2010/2011 between those vaccinated only in 2010/2011 and those who had also received pdm vaccination in 2009/2010 (p=0.58); data only presented over all ages together. VE against influenza B infection 5-14-year-olds: VE=75% (32-91%) No evidence VE varied by age group (age-vaccination interaction likelihood ratio test p=0.46) **Summary:** 2010/2011 TIV demonstrated significant protection against confirmed influenza pdmH1N1 2009 and influenza B for school-aged children who visited their GP for acute respiratory illness.		
Reichert TA, Sugaya N, Fedson DS et al. The Japanese experience with vaccinating schoolchidren against influenza. NEJM	TIV Japanese formulations of 1962-1994 were used in schoolchildren vaccination	Ecological: retrospective observational study over 50 years (1949-1999) during which vaccination policies in Japan changed.	**Vaccinees:** Schoolchildren (6-15-year-olds) -Vaccine coverage during program estimated as ~50%-85% in 3-15-year-olds (80% regularly reached in schoolage portion of this population) per season	**Outcomes assessed:** Excess all-cause and P&I winter mortality rates (over 50 years: pre-, during, and post-schoolchildren vaccine campaign).' Excess'= sum of adjusted* monthly # deaths November-April minus three-year moving average, November deaths. *Adjusted to a standard month of 30.4 days **Results:** Number of excess winter deaths in Japan attributed to influenza decreased during timeframe of vaccine program	Level III	Fair as descriptive study Poor for authors' conclusions

Evidence for TIV Efficacy/Effectiveness

STUDY DETAILS					SUMMARY	
Study	Vaccine	Study Design	Participants	Summary of Key Findings Using Text or Data	Level of Evidence	Quality
2001; 344 :889-896.	campaign	Notable dates: 1962: schoolchildren vaccination programs began 1977: schoolchildren vaccination became obligatory by law 1987: legislation relaxed, parental opt-out allowed 1994: program discontinued	-Schoolchildren coverage near nil after program cessation. **Outcome population:** Japanese population (all ages) note: only schoolchildren were vaccine campaign targets during the time of schoolchildren campaign; vaccine coverage low in the rest of the population Concurrent comparator: US population over same timeframe	despite large increase in number of elderly. Excess deaths began to rise after 1987 relaxation of vaccination legislation; rapid further rise after cancellation of program, to levels seen prior to program commencement. In concurrent comparator that had no such vaccine program (US), these patterns not seen. Authors suggest all-cause excess mortality over influenza period as good an indicator of influenza effects as P&I and estimate 37,000-49,000 all-cause mortality deaths per year (1 per 460 vaccinated children) avoided by vaccinating school children (10,000-12,000 P&I deaths per year). **Summary:** Authors attribute changing winter mortality trends in Japan (that occurred in tandem with schoolchildren vaccination program policy changes) to herd immunity effects of the program (or loss thereof) on the elderly. *Reviewer notes: weaknesses regarding authors' conclusions include lack of consideration of important potential confounders such as circulation of influenza or specific strains or other winter illnesses, demographic, socioeconomic, lifestyle changes over the same timeframe etc. Data set also not designed to support conclusions made regarding the elderly: all ages included with no stratification.*		

Evidence for TIV Efficacy/Effectiveness

STUDY DETAILS					SUMMARY	
Study	Vaccine	Study Design	Participants	Summary of Key Findings Using Text or Data	Level of Evidence	Quality
Treanor JJ, Talbot HK, Ohmit SE, et al. Effectiveness of seasonal influenza vaccines in the United States during a season with circulation of all 3 vaccine strains. Clin Infect Dis 2012; 55;951-9.	TIV and LAIV, 2010/2011 vaccine Most subjects received TIV (FluZone; Sanofi Pasteur, the most commonly received vaccine; 67%). Overall, only 8% received LAIV. At least one dose at least 14 days pre-illness onset defined 'vaccinated. For indicated children a subanalysis of full versus partial vaccination done Good match to circulating strains for all three	Test-negative case-control observational study across multiple surveillance centers in four US states Cases: ILI +, PCR confirmed influenza Controls: ILI +, PCR negative for influenza Wisconsin, Michigan, Tennessee, New York, USA	Persons presenting with ARI to surveillance centers and meeting MAARI definition N=4757, all ages > six months n (3-8-year-olds)=271 cases, 767 controls n (9-18-year-olds)=141 cases, 472 controls 9-18-year-olds constitute 30% and 33% of the 9-49-year-old cases and controls (respectively). 380 subjects excluded, mainly because vaccination status could not be verified from medical records. TIV, 2-8-year-olds: n cases=66 n controls=443 total n=509	**Outcomes Assessed:** Direct effectiveness against lab confirmed (RT-PCR) influenza: by age group, by vaccine (TIV or LAIV), by influenza type and subtype. **Results:** **Any vaccine** Adjusted* VE (95% CI) for: - 3-8-year-olds=69% (56-77%) - Fully vaccinated 6 month – 8-year-olds=68% (56-77%) - Partially vaccinated 6 month – 8-year-olds=55% (36-68%) VE was similar for each of the three components of the vaccine among children. **TIV** Adjusted* VE (95% CI) for 2-8-year-olds=71% (58-78%) 9-49-year-olds=52% (37-64%) TIV and LAIV 2-8-year-olds same point estimate for VE. *Adjusted for study site, age in years, race, insurance, enrollment site, high risk condition	Level II-2	Fair

Evidence for TIV Efficacy/Effectiveness

STUDY DETAILS					SUMMARY	
Study	Vaccine	Study Design	Participants	Summary of Key Findings Using Text or Data	Level of Evidence	Quality
	components.		**TIV, 9-49-year-olds:** n cases=91 n controls=477 total n= 568	**Summary:** 2010/2011 vaccination in the US was moderately protective in a year when all three circulating strains were a good match for the vaccine. TIV and LAIV had similar effectiveness in 2-8-year-olds. Difficult to make conclusions specific to 5-18 year ages, since 9-18 years mixed with adults 30:70; 5-8 years mixed with younger (?:?) and variably reported as 0.5.-8, 2-8, 3-8 years.		
Yamaguchi S, Ohfuji S, Hirota Y. Influenza vaccine effectiveness in primary school children in Japan: A prospective cohort study using rapid diagnostic test results. Journal of Infection and Chemotherapy. 2010;16:407-413.	TIV 2006/2007 formulation 0.3 ml of 30 µg/ml per dose Two doses four weeks apart is the norm in Japan; however children who received only one dose were also considered vaccinated in this study. Circulating B	Prospective cohort 2006/2007 season Data sources: -parental baseline questionnaire (demographic, health information, vaccination status) - Parental influenza report form (including child's diagnostic test result). Authors note that vaccinated and unvaccinated pupils equally followed up	All pupils in four randomly selected elementary schools in Tsuchiura City Aged 6-12 years N=2574 n vaccinated=1153 n unvaccinated=1413	**Outcomes assessed:** VE (1-OR) against rapid influenza test- confirmed influenza **Results:** 98.7% response rate to baseline questionnaires Positive influenza cases n=429 (16.7%) Influenza A cases n=129 (5.0%) Influenza B cases n=294 (11.4%) Both n=6 (0.2%) Clinically diagnosed only (not included in VE odds ratio calculation) n=55 (2.1%) Not infected n=2090 (81.2%) Overall VE (adjusted*) versus any influenza:	Level II-2	Fair

Evidence for TIV Efficacy/Effectiveness

STUDY DETAILS					SUMMARY	
Study	Vaccine	Study Design	Participants	Summary of Key Findings Using Text or Data	Level of Evidence	Quality
	strain reported as well matched to vaccine component	for development of ILI by school administration, with strong recommendations given to parents to take children to clinic for testing; however any lack of submission of an influenza report to the school resulted in child automatically being classified as not infected Japan		21% (95% CI -8-42) VE versus Influenza A: 44% (8-66) VE versus Influenza B :5% (-37-34) *Logistic model includes school, grade, sex, number of siblings, underlying illness, vaccination in the previous season, corresponding type of influenza in the previous season, vaccination in the current season. **Summary:** VE was low against influenza A and non-significant against B or overall, despite the good match between the vaccine and circulating B strains. Authors suggest poor sensitivity of rapid tests and/or potential health-seeking behavior bias might underlie the low VE findings.		

Table 2. Efficacy/Effectiveness of LAIV

Evidence for LAIV Effectiveness

STUDY DETAILS					SUMMARY	
Study	**Vaccine**	**Study Design**	**Participants**	**Summary of Key Findings Using Text or Data**	**Level of Evidence**	**Quality**

Davis MM, King JC, Jr., Moag L, Cummings G, Magder LS. Countywide school-based influenza immunization: Direct and indirect impact on student absenteeism. Pediatrics. 2008;122:E260-E265.	LAIV (Medimmune)
	
	2005/2006 formulation
	
	Administered October - December 2005
		Ecologic
		
		Intervention: Carroll County, 2005/2006 influenza season
		
		Control-1: Frederick County (no school vaccination)
		
		Control-2: the four pre-intervention seasons
		
		Two-way ANOVA for years and counties
			Targeted group for intervention program:
			
			Healthy students (5-~11-year-olds) from all (21) public elementary schools in Caroll County, 2005/2006
			
			School campaign coverage=44% (n=5319/12090)
			
			Vaccination status of study participants is not assessed
			
			Outcome population: all public elementary, middle, and high schools for intervention year (2005/2006) and pre-intervention years (2001/2002-2004/2005) in both counties
			
			Excluded:
			
			Data from schools that participated in other LAIV trials during pre-
				Outcomes assessed: Direct and indirect effectiveness against all-cause student absenteeism during an influenza outbreak
				
				Results:
				Vaccine program associated with significant blunting of influenza-period absentee rate increases; both indirect and direct effects.
				
				Increase in absentee rate with influenza outbreak versus baseline:
				
				Elementary:
				
				  Control: 1.79
				
				  Intervention: 0.61
				
				  estimated difference (95% CI): 1.0 (0.1-1.9), p=0.029
				
				High school:
				
				  Control: 1.80
				
				  Intervention: 0.3
				
				  estimated difference (95% CI): 0.9 (0.1-1.7), p=0.028
					Level II-3	Fair

Evidence for LAIV Effectiveness

STUDY DETAILS					SUMMARY	
Study	Vaccine	Study Design	Participants	Summary of Key Findings Using Text or Data	Level of Evidence	Quality
		Maryland, USA	intervention years (three Carroll County schools for 2004/2005 and one for 2003/2004)	(NB:"Control", above, incorporates both control arms: Caroll over 2001-2004/2005 and Frederick over 2001-2005/2006) Similar, but NSD, findings for middle schools, and for peak influenza weeks, all schools. **Summary:** Absenteeism reduced in vaccine target age group (direct) and older (indirect) group but vaccination status of participants not assessed		
Gaglani MJ, Piedra PA, Herschler GB, et al. Direct and total effectiveness of the intranasal, live-attenuated, trivalent cold-adapted influenza virus vaccine against the 2000-2001 influenza A(H1N1) and B epidemic in healthy children. Arch Pediatr Adolesc Med. 2004;158(1):65-73.	LAIV (CAIV-T; MedImmune), 0.25mL per nostril (10^{6-7} $TCID_{50}$ per strain) Single dose 1998/1999 to 2000/2001 vaccines Y3 (2000/2001), only 1/3 of subjects	Community-based non-randomized open-label trial Pre-licensure phase III trial Illness/VE data pertain to influenza season of 2000/2001 only Data source: Health plan administrative data Temple-Belton (intervention) versus	**Vaccine recipients:** Healthy children aged 18 months to 18 years *(1.5-4-year-old data not reported here)* N (LAIV doses over three years)=14,669 (including non-health plan members, ~50%, not included in outcome data analysis). **Outcome measures group:** Health plan members in intervention and control communities. NB "Year-(1/2/3) cum." indicates child's last year receiving vaccine (i.e. of one or two or three years cumulative vaccination) **Intervention community:**	**Outcomes assessed:** - direct effectiveness against MAARI during influenza epidemic period (vaccinees versus unvaccinated in intervention community and versus unvaccinated in comparison communities), - duration of LAIV protection from a previous year **Results:** **VE versus MAARI over full epidemic period. 1-RR (95% CI):** Y3-cum. within intervention/[versus other] community All ages: 20% (14-25)/ [18% (13-24)] 5-9 years: 24% (18-37) /[22% (12-31)] 10-18 years:14%(0-25) / [14%,(2-26)] Y3-only (i.e. 2000/2001 one-time recipients n=848): Significant VE within intervention community, for 5-9 year	Level II-1	Good

Evidence for LAIV Effectiveness

STUDY DETAILS					SUMMARY	
Study	Vaccine	Study Design	Participants	Summary of Key Findings Using Text or Data	Level of Evidence	Quality

	vaccinated prior to outbreak
	
	In 2000/2001 (Y3) vaccine, A/H1N1 was A/New Caledonia (matches circulating in 2000/2001) versus A/Beijing in Y1&2 vaccine (mismatch to major circulating strain 2000/2001)
	
	Epidemic was H1N1/B only, with two circulating B strains (B/Beijing matched vaccine, B/Sichuan mismatched)
		Waco/Bryan & College Station (comparison), Texas, USA	N (recipients)=3794
			
			Year-3-cum:
			
			  n (5-9 years)=807
			
			  n (10-18 years)=937
			
			Year-2-cum.:
			
			  n (5-9 years)=285
			
			  n (10-18 years)=498
			
			Year-1 n=582
			
			N (nonrecipients)=9325
			
			  n (5-9 years)=2232
			
			  n (10-18 years)=5249
			
			Comparison community:
			No LAIV vaccination
			
			N(nonrecipients)=16,264
			
			n(5-9 years)=4470
			
			n(10-18 years)=8435
				and 10-18-year-olds. Between communities, VE significant for 10-18-year-olds but not 5-9-year-olds (data not shown)
				
				Y2-cum, within intervention /[versus other] community
				
				All ages: 18% (9-27)/[17% (7-26)]
				
				5-9 years: 23% (7-37)/[21% (4-36)]
				
				10-18 years: 3% (-16-9)/[_4% (-14-20)]
				Y2-only (i.e. 1999/2000 one-time recipients,n=931):
				-Statistically significant VE within and between communities for 5-9-year-olds but not 10-18-year-olds
				
				5-9 years: 24% (4-42); 22%(1-39)
				
				10-18 years: 11% (-12-31); 12% (-12-31)
				
				MAARI rates (/10,000 child-days) in non-recipient groups
				Intervention site non-recipients:
				  5-9 years: 61.7
				
				  10-18 years: 32.2
				
				Comparison site non-recipients:
				  5-9 years: 59.7
				
				  10-18 years: 32.7
				
				Early portion of epidemic
				Similar results to total epidemic period (re: more A/H1N1-specific in intervention community where biphasic A/B		

Evidence for LAIV Effectiveness

STUDY DETAILS					SUMMARY	
Study	Vaccine	Study Design	Participants	Summary of Key Findings Using Text or Data	Level of Evidence	Quality
				peaks seen). **After end of epidemic (six-week post-season period):** Significantly higher MAARI incidence in Y3-cum vaccinees during, versus non-recipients in intervention community (p<0.01) **Summary:** LAIV appeared directly effective to similar magnitude regardless of which community used as control. VE persisted beyond vaccination year and despite some strain mismatch. Reviewer notes no evidence of herd effect against MAARI rate in intervention versus control non-vaccinated subjects. Vaccinated children later demonstrated a higher incidence of non-influenza-associated MAARI than unvaccinated children.		
Glezen WP, Gaglani MJ, Kozinetz CA, et al. Direct and indirect effectiveness of influenza vaccination delivered to children at school preceding an epidemic caused by 3 new influenza virus variants. J Infect Dis. 2010;202(11):16	School program vaccination: LAIV (0.1mL per nostril) or TIV (0.5 ml; for children with health conditions (caveat for author's suggestions of effectiveness differences between vaccines)	Non-randomized, open label, active controlled community-based trial Compares between communities with (intervention) or without (control) a school-based vaccine program Data from health plan members only	**Vaccine program target group:** 5-11-year-olds in intervention county - vaccinated 48% of age-eligible school population (of that, 84.8% LAIV, 15.2% TIV) -Vaccination also received outside school program (see coverage below for study population). **Study population vaccinees:** 5-11-year-old members of health plan: Intervention: N=7712	**Outcomes assessed:** Indirect protection in the community; rates of MAARI and lab-confirmed influenza (shell vial followed by culture of initial positives). Secondary: direct protection. **Results:** Number of MAARIs over influenza outbreak period: N=27,614 n(Intervention)=11,152 (of outcome population 50665) n(Control)=16,406 (of outcome population 67036) MAARI rates intervention/ comparison communities. Risk ratio over four periods of year (95% CI); % less MAARI in intervention community:	Level II-1	Poor

Evidence for LAIV Effectiveness

STUDY DETAILS					SUMMARY	
Study	Vaccine	Study Design	Participants	Summary of Key Findings Using Text or Data	Level of Evidence	Quality
26-33	Control: no vaccine Dominant circulating strains different than all three vaccine-strains 50/50 (100%) of subtype analysis for cases demonstrated variant strain infection	(within communities) 2007/2008 influenza season Temple-Belton (intervention) versus Waco/Bryan (control), Texas, USA NCT00138294	n(LAIV)=4430 n(TIV)=1413 n (no vaccine)=1869 vaccine coverage: 75.8% (57.4%LAIV+18.3% TIV) Control: N=5043 n(LAIV)=188 n(TIV)=1049 n(no vaccine)=3806 vaccine coverage: 24.5% (3.7% LAIV+20.8% TIV) A 51.3% differential in vaccine coverage between groups. **Outcome population:** N=117,701 health plan members (all ages) Intervention: n=50665 (50% of population, Bell County	Pre-vaccine (week 27-42): 0.97 (0.95-1.00); 3% NSD Vaccine (week 43-51) : 0.89 (0.86-0.91); 11% (significant) Influenza epidemic (week 52-11): 0.90 (0.88- 0.92);10% (significant) Post-influenza-epidemic (week 12-26): 0.91 (0.88-0.93); 9% (sign) Age-specific MAARI rates during epidemic period: RRs range from 0.85 to 0.94 across age groups. Only NSD age group was 12-18 years: RR=1.07 (0.99-1.17) Confirmed influenza rates: **NSD** between communities, both for # cultured (N=1006; 482 versus 524), and for # cultures proving influenza positive (N=524; 236 versus 288) Protection to non-vaccinated individuals (herd) **NSD** between intervention and control communities for influenza-confirmed rate in non-vaccinated patients (203/397 versus 250/449) Direct effectiveness (LAIV, intervention community): LAIV: 11/4430 cultured, n=1 influenza+ No vaccine: 28/1869 cultured, n=13 influenza+ (not statistically analyzed - a p value confusingly cited in the text apparently refers instead to statistically significant		

Evidence for LAIV Effectiveness

STUDY DETAILS					SUMMARY	
Study	**Vaccine**	**Study Design**	**Participants**	**Summary of Key Findings Using Text or Data**	**Level of Evidence**	**Quality**
			area) Control: n=67036 (pooling of two areas, each with 25% of population who were members). Non-target age groups: vaccine coverage rates reported in Fig. 1 appear comparable between control/intervention.	bias in physician decision to culture, which was six-fold higher in unvaccinated patients) -Weekly MAARI visits (i.e. extra events beyond first MAARI visit) significantly lower in LAIV–group than no-vaccine (p=0.002) **Summary:** Direct effectiveness is suggested by surveillance cultures, but caveat of low number of cases, low rates of and biased sampling. Indirect VE claimed by authors does not appear supported by data: MAARI differences begin prior to influenza vaccination start and continue beyond influenza season. The more specific influenza-confirmation data shows NSD between intervention and control communities and NSD between unvaccinated herds.		
Grijalva CG, Zhu Y, Simonsen L, Mitchel E, Griffin MR. The population impact of a large school-based influenza vaccination campaign. PLoS ONE . 2010;5:e15097.	LAIV (MedImmune) 2005/2006 and 2006/2007 formulations Suboptimal match to circulating viruses	Retrospective cohort Data source: electronic records from all licensed hospitals in Tennessee. Intervention group: 5-17-year-olds from Knox county (vaccine program 2005/2006 and 2006/2007) Control group: Eight surrounding counties	**Vaccine program target group:** Knox County healthy 5–17-year-olds (school program 2005/2006 and 2006/2007) Program coverage: approximately 41%(2005/2006) and 48% (2006/2007) of eligible children Vaccination status of study participants not determined **Outcomes group:** All patients from intervention and control counties who visited an ED or were hospitalized for influenza-	**Outcomes Assessed:** Direct (target age) and indirect (all age groups) effectiveness against ED visits and hospitalizations for influenza-attributed MAARI. Influenza attribution of MAARI by subtraction (modeled baseline from weekly excess during influenza period). **Results:** 5-17-year-olds: Campaign years - NSD in relative hospitalization rates [RR=0.93 (0-2.38)] ED rates; RR Knox:control(95% CI):	Level II-2	Fair

Evidence for LAIV Effectiveness

STUDY DETAILS					SUMMARY	
Study	Vaccine	Study Design	Participants	Summary of Key Findings Using Text or Data	Level of Evidence	Quality
		(no vaccine program) Seven influenza seasons (pre-campaign: 2000/2001- 2004/ 2005; campaign: 2005/2006- 2006/2007) Knox and eight neighbouring counties, Tennessee, USA	attributed MAARI (all hospitals in the state, all ages of patient). Population of counties (n) and % 5-17-year-olds within population: Knox: 385899, 16.2% Control: 422064, 17.0% N events (5-17 yearolds): ED visits : Knox: n=30630 Control: n=36670 Hospitalizations: Knox: n=1395 Control: n=1678 N events, other age groups: Not reported	2005/2006: 0.55 (0.27-0.83) or 45% significant decrease 2006/2007: 0.70 (0.56-0.84) or 30% significant decrease Both years: 0.65 (0.46-0.84) or 35% significant decrease Average influenza-ED population rate Knox: 9.11 (6.94-11.28) per 1000 Control: 13.97 (11.79-16.15) per 1000 Age breakdown (RR Knox:control, 95% CI): 5-11 years : 0.67 (0.44-0.90) significant decrease of 33% 12-17 years: 0.66 (0.34-0.98) significant decrease of 34% *Pre-campaign years*-NSD between Knox and control for RRs; relatively stable from year to year and NSD from 1. Over five seasons: ED rates [RR=0.95 (0.74- 1.16)] Hospitalization rates [RR=0.82 (0-1.98)] Other age groups (indirect effectiveness): Campaign years - NSD for both outcomes for all age groups (< five years, 18-34, 35-49, 50-64, 65+, and 18+) Pre-campaign years -		

Evidence for LAIV Effectiveness

STUDY DETAILS					SUMMARY	
Study	Vaccine	Study Design	Participants	Summary of Key Findings Using Text or Data	Level of Evidence	Quality
				NSD, except for 18-34-year-olds, who had significantly reduced RR for MAARI ED visits versus control **Summary:** Direct/mixed effectiveness versus ED visit for influenza-attributed MAARI suggested in both vaccine campaign years (similar results in 5-11 versus 12-17 year subgroups). No herd immunity demonstrable in any younger or older (non-target) age groups. On the contrary historically decreased RR for ED visits in Knox versus control 18-34 year adults was relatively increased to NSD in intervention years.		
Grijalva CG, Zhu Y, Griffin MR. Evidence of effectiveness from a large county-wide school-based influenza immunization campaign. Vaccine. 2009;27:2633-2636.	LAIV (MedImmune) 2005/2006 and 2006/2007 formulations for intervention years Suboptimal match to circulating viruses	Retrospective cohort Data source: medical records from a single children's hospital serving both study arms Intervention group: children from vaccine-campaign county (Knox) Control group: children from surrounding non-vaccine campaign counties	**Vaccine program target group:** Knox County healthy 5-17-year-olds (school program 2005/2006 and 2006/2007) Program coverage: approximately 41% (2005/2006) and 48% (2006/2007) of eligible children Vaccination status of study participants not determined **Outcomes group:** all children <18 years who visited the (one) hospital and were tested for influenza using rapid influenza tests	**Outcomes assessed:** Direct (5-17-year-olds) and indirect (<5-year-olds) effectiveness of vaccine campaign versus test-positive influenza (using rapid influenza test) **Results** (95% CI encompassing 1 indicates NSD in risk between study arms): Baseline (five pre-campaign seasons): - NSD in RR of positive influenza test for Knox versus control during any season, both age groups (<5 year and 5-17 year). - Similar influenza activity and related health care use in both groups. Campaign seasons: 5-17-year-olds: 21%, NSD reduction in RR in first intervention year and	Level II-2	Fair to poor

Evidence for LAIV Effectiveness

STUDY DETAILS					SUMMARY	
Study	Vaccine	Study Design	Participants	Summary of Key Findings Using Text or Data	Level of Evidence	Quality
		Seven influenza seasons (pre-campaign: 2000/2001-2004/2005; campaign 2005/2006-2006/2007)	Over all seven influenza seasons: N=17,095 n(Knox)=10,425 (6460<5years) n(control)=6670 (4517<5years) Intervention years (Knox,control):	27% significant reduction in second intervention year. RR Knox versus control (95% CI): 2005/2006: 0.79 (0.59 – 1.05) 2006/2007: 0.73 (0.60-0.87) 5-11 and 12-17 year stratification: % reductions in RR point estimates: 14% and 24% in younger and 39% and 37% in older children, in intervention years 1 and 2, respectively. NSD in year 1,		
		Knox and eight neighbouring counties, Tennessee, USA	2005/2006: n=330, 273 2006/2007: n=845, 513 5-17 year group [mean age, 95% CI]: Knox n=3965 [9.43 (9.32-9. 55)] Control n=2153 [8.54 (8.39-8.68)] Knox mean age (5-17 group) sign older (p<0.001)	significant in year 2. RR Knox versus control (95% CI): 5-11 years: - 2005/2006: 0.86 (0.6 – 1.24) - 2006/2007: 0.76 (0.62 - 0.94) years: - 2005/2006: 0.61 (0.37-1.02) - 2006/2007: 0.63 (0.42 - 0.96) <5-year-olds: No herd immunity effect apparent either per year or overall (RRs NSD than 1). **Summary:** -Direct effectiveness versus lab-confirmed influenza demonstrated in one of two years, contrasting same author's 2010 demo of VE in both years (same subjects, different outcome; reviewer notes test inaccuracy caveat in present study). - Older teens higher point estimate % reduction than younger, but CI overlap.		

Evidence for LAIV Effectiveness

STUDY DETAILS					SUMMARY	
Study	**Vaccine**	**Study Design**	**Participants**	**Summary of Key Findings Using Text or Data**	**Level of Evidence**	**Quality**
				- No indirect benefit demonstrable in <5-year-olds (N=10977 in both study arms)		
Halloran M, Longini I, Gaglani M, et al. Estimating efficacy of trivalent, cold-adapted, influenza virus vaccine (CAIV-T) against influenza A (H1N1) and B using surveillance cultures. Am J Epidemiol. 2003;158:305-311.	**LAIV (Aviron/ MedImmune)** Control: no vaccine Frozen formulation contained 10^7 $TCID_{50}$ of each strain Single dose 1999/2000 and 2000/2001 vaccines In 2000/2001 vaccine,	Community-based, non-randomized, open-label study (pre-licensure phase III trial) Illness data from influenza season 2000/2001 only (vaccination data from up to two years) Temple-Belton, Texas, USA	**Vaccine program target group:** All healthy children aged 18 months-18 years in Temple-Belton were offered LAIV. Vaccination (N=approximately 19,700). (data pertaining to 1.5-4-year-olds not presented here) **Study outcome group:** Analysis includes only SWHP (health plan) members (authors report 80% of population are SWHP members). 2000/2001 vaccinated n(LAIV)=2281 (848 not vaccinated in 1999/2000 + 1444 vaccinated both years) 5-9 years=807 10-18 years=937	**Outcomes assessed:** Direct effectiveness against MAARI, and against validation sample-adjusted MAARI (using mean score of lab-confirmed influenza in surveillance cultures from within the study group). **Results:** Surveillance cultures n(influenza+)/n(sampled): Total =138/405 (34%) Unvaccinated: 133/327 (41%) LAIV 2000/2001: 5/52 (10%) LAIV 1999/2000: 4/26 (15%) 4/5 influenza cases in 2000/2001 and 3/4 in 1999/2000 vaccinees were B/Sichuan, the other one (each) was A/Caledonia Controls: 65/133 cases were B/Sichuan, 64/133 A/Caledonia Unvaccinated children sampled significantly more than vaccinated children in 2000/2001 (7.7% versus 5.6%,	Level II-1	Poor

Evidence for LAIV Effectiveness

STUDY DETAILS					SUMMARY	
Study	Vaccine	Study Design	Participants	Summary of Key Findings Using Text or Data	Level of Evidence	Quality
	A/Caledonia (H1N1) matched circulating strain in 2000/2001 (versus 1999/2000 vaccine A/H1N1 mismatch to major circulating strain 2000/2001). Two circulating B strains (one matched and B/Sichuan mismatched in both years vaccines).		1999/2000 vaccinated (not in 2000/2001) N(LAIV)=931 5-9 years=285 10-18 years=498 Unvaccinated n(control)=9325 5-9 years=2232 10-18 years=5249	p=0.03). VE (1-RR) 1) versus MAARI rate (unadjusted, called M below) or against surveillance-culture-adjusted MAARI value (called S below), per age group In 2000/2001 vaccinees (%, 95% CI limits): 5-9 years. M: 25% (15-34); S: 80% (26-95) 10-18 years M: 14% (1-26); S: 70% (13-90) In 1999-only vaccinee group 5-9 years-M: 23% (9-38); S:81% (-22-97) 10-18 years-M: 3% (-13-18); S: 57% (-21-85%) -versus A or B strains [all ages, adjusted with mean surveillance culture method; % (95% CI limits)]: 2000/2001 vaccinees: A: 92% (42-99); B: 66% (9-87) 1999/2000 vaccinees: A: 84% (-11-98); B: 50% (-49-83) **Summary:** Upholds Gaglani's (2004) findings on same subjects and further suggests higher magnitude of studied VE against influenza than MAARI. Reviewer notes debatable validity of the VE adjustment model used (e.g. non-random		

Evidence for LAIV Effectiveness

STUDY DETAILS					SUMMARY	
Study	Vaccine	Study Design	Participants	Summary of Key Findings Using Text or Data	Level of Evidence	Quality
				culture, low number of cases, low proportions sampled). 99/00 vaccination effect against MAARI through a second season in 5-9-year-old subgroup only : caution interpreting comparisons between 5-9 versus 10-18 year-old 2000/2001 vaccinees (63% were two-year cummulative vaccinees of unknown age with no indication of even split between age subgroups).		

Halloran ME, Piedra PA, Longini IM, Jr., et al. Efficacy of trivalent, cold-adapted, influenza virus vaccine against influenza A (Fujian), a drift variant, during 2003-2004. Vaccine. 2007;25(20):403 8-45.	LAIV (MedImmune)
	
	2003-2004
	
	(10^7 FFU per strain) to healthy children
	
	TIV (to children with health conditions)
	
	0.5 ml IM
	
	Single dose
	
	Note overlap: Vaccination period: October 10 - December
		Prospective, open-label, non-randomized community-based trial
		
		2003-2004 influenza season
		
		Used SWHP (health-plan) administrative data from within intervention community only
		
		Intervention community:
		
		(with vaccine program) Temple-Belton
			Vaccinees: 5-18-year-olds in intervention community
			
			N=6403, 5-18 years of age
			
			$n_{(LAIV)}$=1706 healthy children
			
			  5-9 years: n=757
			
			  10-18 years: n=949
			
			$n_{(unimmunized)}$=3166 healthy children
			
			  5-9 years: n=739
			
			  10-18 years: n=2427
			
			$n_{(PREV}$; previously LAIV 1998-2001, but not 2002 or 2003)=983
			
			n_{TIV}=548 (data not reported here as children had health conditions)
				Outcomes assessed:
				Direct protective effects of LAIV against drift variant
				
				Primary endpoint: MAARI incidence during 10 week outbreak period. VE against MAARI adjusted by extrapolating surveillance sample influenza-positivity proportion to MAARI data set.
				
				Effectiveness against MAARI (1-RR, 95% CI)
				
				LAIV 5-9 years; 0.31 (0.11, 0.47)
				
				  10-18 years: 0.24 (0.03, 0.40)
				
				PREV 5-9 years: -0.25 (-0.61, 0.05)
				  10-18 years: -0.07 (-0.28, 0.10)
				
				Effectiveness against validation sample-adjusted MAARI rate (using internal and external surveillance samples)
				
				LAIV 5-9 years; 0. 60 (0.25, 0.84)
					Level II-1	Good

Evidence for LAIV Effectiveness

STUDY DETAILS					SUMMARY	
Study	Vaccine	Study Design	Participants	Summary of Key Findings Using Text or Data	Level of Evidence	Quality

	30
	
	Outbreak period: October 12-December 20
	
	Only 58% subjects received vaccine prior to peak week
	
	Epidemic primarily caused by circulating H3N2 A/Fujian drift variant (vaccine strain was A/Panama).
		NCT00138294
		
		Texas, USA
				10-18 years: 0.54 (0.23 0.78)
				
				PREV 5-9 years: 0.17 (-0.50, 0.61)
				        10-18 years: -0.07 (-0.28, 0.39)
				
				Influenza-positive rates in surveillance samples (culture performed on approximately 9% of total n):
				
				LAIV 5-9 years; 7/24 (29%)
				
				      10-18 years: 9/24 (38%)
				
				PREV 5-9 years; 10/30 (33%)
				
				      10-18 years: 23/44 (52%)
				
				No vaccination: 5-9 years: 27/54 (50%)
				
				              10-18 years: 65/105 (62%)
				
				Conclusions:
				LAIV was cross-protective against a drift variant. No evidence of lasting protection from previous season. Reviewer notes improvements made to VE validation set adjustment model used in this study, versus that authors previously used (Halloran 2003).		

Evidence for LAIV Effectiveness

STUDY DETAILS					SUMMARY	
Study	**Vaccine**	**Study Design**	**Participants**	**Summary of Key Findings Using Text or Data**	**Level of Evidence**	**Quality**
Hull HF, McBean AM, Caldwell D, et al. Assessing herd immunity in the elderly following the vaccination of school-children with LAIV: a county-level analysis. Proc. Vaccinol 2010 ; 2 :92-100	LAIV (MedImmune) Intervention: school-based immunization programs 2005/2006 and 2006/2007 vaccines matched circulating strains in both years	Ecological Using retrospective Medicare admin data Control seasons: 2000-2004/2005 (TN), 2000-2005/2006 (MN) Intervention seasons: 2005/2006 (TN) 2006/2007 (TN and MN) Knox versus Davidson County, TN; three pooled MN counties in intervention and in comparison Tennessee (TN) and Minnesota (MN),	**Vaccine program target group:** schoolchildren in intervention counties. Coverage 41% - >50%, each year, each county. Outcome group: 65-99-year-olds Medicare enrollees in intervention and control counties. Excluded: end stage renal disease patients, re-admissions occurring within 14 days, P & I diagnoses that were not in the primary position.	**Outcome assessed:** Indirect effectiveness of children's vaccination on the elderly: - **hospitalizations for P&I during influenza season** - outpatient and office visits for MAARI during influenza season **Results:** P&I ; RR intervention/comparison (95% CI) TN: - 4/5 control season RRs had CIs crossing 1.0; Point estimates of: 0.89, 0.91, 0.89, and 0.87. One control season sign. RR of 0.82 (0.69-0.97) -Combined five previous seasons: 0.87 (0.80-0.94) -Intervention year 2005/2006: 0.74 (0.61-0.87); sign decrease versus combined control seasons, p=0.042 -Intervention year 2006/2007: 0.92 (0.74-1.10) NSD; p=0.32 MN:	Level II-3	Fair

Evidence for LAIV Effectiveness

STUDY DETAILS					SUMMARY	
Study	Vaccine	Study Design	Participants	Summary of Key Findings Using Text or Data	Level of Evidence	Quality
		USA		Single control season RRs for the six control seasons each had CIs crossing 1.0. Pt estimates: 0.97, 1.15, 1.14, 1.05, 1.10, 1.06 Combined six control seasons: 1.07 (0.98-1.17) Intervention year 2006/2007: 1.49 (1.03-1.95); significant increase versus control seasons, p=0.026 MAARI TN: Intervention/comparison RR >1.0 in all years. NSD between intervention and combined pre-intervention years (data not shown) Table and Fig. 3 appear to be erratum copy of Fig. 2 P&I data. MN: Intervention/comparison RR and upper CI <1.0 in all years. Control seasons RR pt estimates: 0.85, 0.83, 0.81, 0.86, 0.90, 0.84 Intervention year 2006/2007: 0.85		

Evidence for LAIV Effectiveness

STUDY DETAILS					SUMMARY	
Study	Vaccine	Study Design	Participants	Summary of Key Findings Using Text or Data	Level of Evidence	Quality
				Summary: Controlling for seasonal variations over several pre-seasons, authors note they could not reproduce herd effectiveness reported by others (Piedra 2005) despite higher vaccine coverage of children. All MAARI comparisons showed NSD. For P&I, the three comparisons show one increase (MN), one decrease (TN 2005/2006), and one NSD (TN 2006/2007), although authors highlight only the one decrease. Reviewer notes the lack of a consistent message and of statistical corrections for multiple comparisons.		
King JC, Cummings GE, Stoddard J, et al. A pilot study of the effectiveness of a school-based influenza vaccination program. Pediatrics. 2005 Dec;116(6):e868–73.	LAIV (MedImmune) 2003/2004 formulation $10^{6.5-7.5}$ TCID$_{50}$ Immunization mostly concurrent with outbreak One dose given in 90% by peak week (second dose mostly	Open-label, unblinded, controlled community intervention. Pilot study to (King, 2006) 2003/2004 season Intervention: a single, selected elementary school Control: Two selected elementary schools demographically	Healthy students (5-11 years) in intervention school 40% coverage (n=185/460 children) N families: Intervention: 157 Control: 452	**Outcomes assessed:** Direct and indirect effectiveness of vaccinating schoolchildren on: - absenteeism (school admin data) - healthcare use for fever or respiratory symptoms, medications/humidifiers purchased (anonymous questionnaire data, seven-day recall from peak influenza week). **Results:** Questionnaire return rate: Intervention school:43% Control schools: 47% and 51% Significant, 45-70% relative reductions in fever or respiratory illness-related outcomes	Level II-2	Fair

Evidence for LAIV Effectiveness

STUDY DETAILS					SUMMARY	
Study	**Vaccine**	**Study Design**	**Participants**	**Summary of Key Findings Using Text or Data**	**Level of Evidence**	**Quality**
	post-outbreak).	similar to intervention school Carroll County, Maryland, US		Direct effectiveness: decreased school absences among vaccinees, **Summary:** Direct + Indirect effectiveness: reduced doctor visits and medication use among family members, reduced work absences by parents.		
King JC, Jr., Stoddard JJ, Gaglani MJ, et al. Effectiveness of school-based influenza vaccination. NEJM. 2006;355:2523-2532.	LAIV: FluMist (MedImmune), 2004/2005 formulation Main circulating virus) was drifted from vaccine strains One dose, or for children <9 years not previously vaccinated: second dose 6 to 10 weeks after	Multicentre controlled trial: prospective cohort with cluster design. Non-randomized (4/11 clusters; the other seven were randomized) Clusters (across four US states): one intervention school + one or two control schools 2004/2005 influenza season Intervention group: Households with a child at an	**Vaccine recipients:** Consenting, healthy chidren 5-14 years old in intervention schools. LAIV coverage: 47% of students. Average age=7.9 years (95% two-dose coverage achieved) LAIV offered free at intervention schools only; any vaccination outside program was estimated (by questionnaire, see below). **Outcome measure groups:** All students and members of their households, who returned questionnaires. Intervention schools: n=11, with n=5840 students , n=3022 households Control schools: n=17, with n=9451	**Outcomes assessed:** Combined household member indices (i.e.,direct and indirect effectiveness within single measure) for IL and its associated absenteeism and use of medications/ healthcare during predicted peak influenza week. Secondary: school administrative record-based absenteeism, all-cause, over eight-week outbreak period **Results:** Return rate of questionnaire : Intervention, Control: 77%, 83% Questionnaire data: Intervention associated with decreased: -ILI symptoms (p<.0001) -Use of medications /remedies (p<.0001) and vaporizers (p<.001) for ILI	Level II-1	Fair

Evidence for LAIV Effectiveness

STUDY DETAILS					SUMMARY	
Study	Vaccine	Study Design	Participants	Summary of Key Findings Using Text or Data	Level of Evidence	Quality
	first dose NCT00192218	intervention school Control group: Households with a child at a control school (i.e. group classification NOT according to whether child vaccinated) Primary data source: Anonymous questionnaire with one week recall (predicted peak influenza week)	students, n=5488 households Vaccination coverage all participants (TIV+LAIV%) ordered as intervention, control): Adults: 13, 13 High school: 12, 7 Infants: 26, 18 Elementary: 53, 12 Middle(grades 6-8): 22, 10	-children's visits to doctors or clinics for ILI (p<.001), -school absences for ILI (elementary school age and all school age; p<.001 each; high school:p=0.03) -paid work days missed by adults for self or child's ILI (p=0.04) Intervention associated with increased: Hospitalization for ILI symptoms (2.7 versus 1 child [p=0.03] and 2 versus 1.3 adults [p=0.05] per 1000 persons. Post-hoc analysis between households with or without a vaccinee child showed NSD in hospitalizations. Secondary: Within intervention schools - significantly less absenteeism for vaccinees versus non-recipients (p<.01). Between intervention versus control schools, NSD. *(Please note that measure is not directly comparable to questionnaire data regarding absenteeism)* **Summary:** Significant reduction in most influenza-related outcomes in households of intervention schools. Increased ILI-hospitalization rate associated with vaccination program.		
King JC, Jr., Beckett D, Snyder J, Cummings GE,	LAIV (MedImmune)	Ecologic	**Vaccination target group:** Healthy elementary school children (~5-11 years old) in all of Maryland's public schools.	**Outcome assessed:** Direct (elementary school) and indirect (high school) effectiveness against school absenteeism (all-cause) during four week intense influenza outbreak period	Level II-3	Poor

Evidence for LAIV Effectiveness

| STUDY DETAILS | | | | | SUMMARY | |
Study	Vaccine	Study Design	Participants	Summary of Key Findings Using Text or Data	Level of Evidence	Quality
King BS, Magder LS. Direct and indirect impact of influenza vaccination of young children on school absenteeism. Vaccine. 2012;30:289-293.	Immunization each Fall of 2005, 2006, and 2007 in public health initiative-school –based vaccination program Vaccination complete prior to influenza season onsets	Dose-response evaluation relating achieved coverage of the vaccination campaign per county, per year, to outcomes per county, per year, by binomial regression model using log-odds Maryland, USA	- routine vaccinations outside the program may have been received Outcome groups: Counties The 11 (of 24 total) Maryland counties for which absenteeism data were available (all-cause, all-grade, all three years), regardless of if they participated in vaccination program. - All 11 participated one year. - Two counties participated each of the other two years. - Non-participators included in model as 0% coverage (i.e. of 33 county-years, 18 had 0%coverage, 15 had 3-46% coverage)	**Results:** For every 20% increase in the county rate of vaccination received under this program (excluding unmeasured rate received outside the program), a decrease of 4% (of the influenza-period increase over baseline, NOT to be confused with a decrease of that magnitude in absenteeism itself) Vaccination coverages under the program: Over all counties, all years: 0%- 46% of eligible children. 2005/2006: 25-39% in two counties, 0% in nine others 2006/2007: 3-46% in 11 counties 2007/2008: 26-38% in two counties (not same two as above), 0% in nine others. Absenteeism data not shown Factor of reduction in absenteeism increases, for each 20% rise in the county coverage (95% CI): Elementary schools: 0.961 (0.925-0.999), p=0.045 High schools: 0.960 (0.926-0.995), p=0.025 **Summary:** Authors conclude that vaccination of 5-11-year-olds associated with both direct and indirect benefits. Reviewer cautions that background vaccination levels not measured and potential biases incorporated in model.		

Evidence for LAIV Effectiveness

STUDY DETAILS					SUMMARY	
Study	Vaccine	Study Design	Participants	Summary of Key Findings Using Text or Data	Level of Evidence	Quality
King JC, Jr., Lichenstein R, Cummings GE, Magder LS. Impact of influenza vaccination of schoolchildren on medical outcomes among all residents of Maryland. Vaccine. 2010;28:7737-7742.	LAIV (MedImmune)

Immunization each Fall of seasons (2005-2008) in public health initiative-school –based vaccination program

Weighted mean match between circulating strains and vaccine strains:

2005/2006: 67%

2006/2007:67%

2007/2008:27%- poor match | Ecologic

Retrospective medical record review from all hospitals in all counties.

Dose-response evaluation relating achieved coverage of the vaccination campaign per county, per year, to outcomes per county, per year, by Poisson regression model

Maryland, USA | **Vaccine program target group:** Healthy elementary school children (~5-11 years old) in all of Maryland's public schools.

- routine vaccinations outside the program may have been received

<u>Counties</u>: All Maryland counties for one year, some for other years. Vaccine coverage rate of program: range 3-46% across 24 counties.

2005/2006: in two counties

2006/2007: in all 24 counties

2007/2008: in five counties | **Outcomes assessed:** Direct (5-11 year-old) and indirect (all other ages) effectiveness against the rates during influenza outbreak period (IOP) of: MAARI-related ED visits, MAARI hospitalizations, and deaths due to P&I. Secondary outcome: deaths due to cardiovascular disease.

Results:
<u>ED visits</u>: % decrease (95% CI) for every 20% increase in vaccination rates (taking all three seasons together):

5-11-yearolds: 8% (5-12%), p <0.0001

19-49-year,olds: 6% (3-8%), p <0.0001

NSD for other age groups

Individual seasons: similar pattern, except

- In 2005/2006, ED visits also decreased in 0-4 age group.

- In 2007/2008 (year of poor match) no effects of vaccination were apparent in any group.
<u>Hospitalization</u> : for every 20% increase in vaccination rates there were no significant decreases in any age group, but some increases instead:

Over all three seasons:

>50 years: increased by 4% (3-9) p=0.023 | Level II-3 | Poor |

Evidence for LAIV Effectiveness

STUDY DETAILS					SUMMARY	
Study	Vaccine	Study Design	Participants	Summary of Key Findings Using Text or Data	Level of Evidence	Quality
				(a 19% increase for 12-18 year-olds was NSD p=0.062) In specific seasons: 0-4 years: increased by 18% in 2006/2007, p=0.0099 No significant changes in deaths **Summary:** Authors conclude that there were direct (5-11-year-old) and indirect (19-49-year-old) benefits of the vaccine program on ED visits. Reviewer notes weaknesses in the model, such as that background vaccination levels and other confounders not considered. The vaccine program was associated with increased hospitalization for MAARI during the IOP.		
McBean M, Hull HF, O'Connor H Possible herd immunity in the elderly following the vaccination of schoolchildren with live, attenuated trivalent influenza vaccine: a person-level analysis. Procedia in Vaccinology	LAIV (MedImmune) Formulations of 2005, 2006, and 2007 Weighted mean match between the three vaccines versus circulating strains:	Retrospective cohort. Over six seasons Three pre-intervention (2002-2004/2005) Three intervention (2005-2007/2008) Between residents in county with (Intervention; Knox) and without (control; eight surrounding counties) school	**Vaccine program target group:** 5-18-year-olds; vaccine coverage of public school population was 47%, 46%, and 40%, over 2005/2006, 2006/2007, 2007/2008, respectively. **Outcome measure group:** elderly residents (66+ years of age) of Knox County and eight surrounding control counties Included only P&I as primary diagnosis ; excluded hospital-acquired P&I.	**Outcome measure:** Rates of hospitalization for P & I among elderly (i.e. indirect effectiveness of vaccination of schoolchildren) **Results:** - P & I hospitalizations significantly reduced in Knox relative to control elderly except for third year: 2005/2006 (difference of 26.4%; p=0.0012) 2006/2007 (difference of 16.7%; p=0.037) 2007/2008 (NSD) - When only unvaccinated elderly were considered, age-	Level II-2	Fair

Evidence for LAIV Effectiveness

STUDY DETAILS					SUMMARY	
Study	**Vaccine**	**Study Design**	**Participants**	**Summary of Key Findings Using Text or Data**	**Level of Evidence**	**Quality**
2011; 4: 59-70.	2005/2006: 0.67 2006/2007: 0.67 2007/2008: 0.27 (i.e., fair, fair, poor over three intervention seasons)	vaccination program Tennessee, USA		adjusted rates were only significantlydiminished in one of the intervention years 2005/2006; OR=0.703, 95% CI: 0.515--0.961 - Adjusting for historic rates as well as for other important covariates removed the differences noted above as 'significant'; **NSD** in hospitalization rates for both total and unvaccinated elderly populations: - Total elderly population: OR=0.836, CI:0.698-1.007 for 2005-2006 and OR>1 with CIs straddling 1 for other years - Unvaccinated elderly subjects OR=0.827, CI: 0.613-1.116 and OR>1 with CIs straddling 1 for other years. **Summary:** No herd impact of vaccinating children on outcomes in the elderly demonstrable once corrections for confounders applied. Authors believe failure to demonstrate an impact was due to the high level of immunization among the elderly (>60%).		
Mears CJ, Lawler EN, Sanders, L et al. Efficacy of LAIV-T on absentee rates in a school-based health center sample. Journal of Adolescent Health.	LAIV, FluMist (MedImmune) Comparators: no vaccination, TIV. (Note TIV recipients all had health conditions,	Prospective, non-randomized controlled, school-based study in a single urban school 2006/2007 season	LAIV offered to all students in grades 6-10 (11-17 years); only healthy students who returned signed parental consent were eligible to receive LAIV. Actual study age range: 12-18 years old, LAIV recipients mean age 14.39 years, SD 1.41.	**Primary outcomes:** Direct effectiveness against school absenteeism (all-cause but suspension, over 6 months of age. **Results:** NSD (p=0.093) between non-vaccinated students who had returned consent form and non-vaccinated students who did not return the consent form. Those two non-vaccinee subgroups pooled as non-vaccinee control group for between-arm analyses. Decreased absenteeism in LAIV recipients compared to	Level II-2	Fair

Evidence for LAIV Effectiveness

STUDY DETAILS					SUMMARY	
Study	Vaccine	Study Design	Participants	Summary of Key Findings Using Text or Data	Level of Evidence	Quality
2009;45:91-94.	therefore data are excluded here) 2006-2007 vaccine administered prior to mid-December 2006.	Blinding: Vaccine – no Absentee records – yes Data source: School records over January-June 2007. Total # suspension days subtracted from # absence days for each student. Comparisons between non-suspension absences per study arm. Chicago, US	No vaccine: Mean age 14.59 years. SD 1.30. N=361 (96% of total student body) n(LAIV)=86 n(no vaccine)=234, including 38 who returned parental consent for vaccine and 196 who did not return consent. Demographic predominantly low income (97%) and non-Caucasian (98%) Excluded if >2 SD of mean nonsuspension absences, as likely related to student movement in and out of the school system (not illness)	non-vaccinees (p=0.027): Non-suspension absentee days: LAIV: mean=5.53 median=4.5 SD=5.00 range=0-20 No vaccine: mean=7.97 median=6.0 SD=7.59 range=0-33 **Summary:** Absenteeism reduced in vaccinees.		

Evidence for LAIV Effectiveness

STUDY DETAILS					SUMMARY	
Study	**Vaccine**	**Study Design**	**Participants**	**Summary of Key Findings Using Text or Data**	**Level of Evidence**	**Quality**
Neuzil KM, Dupont WD, Wright PF, et al. Efficacy of inactivated and cold-adapted vaccines against influenza A infection, 1985 to 1990: the pediatric experience. Pediatr Infect Dis J 2001 Aug;20(8):733-740.	TIV/LAIV Vaccines of 1986/1987-1989/1990 (Commercial TIV; lab-produced pre-licensure LAIV). One dose only LAIV- bivalent A/H1N1 and A/H3N2 intranasal drops, 1.0 ml (0.5 ml/strain,10^6 - $10^{7.8}$ plaque-forming U/ml), + inactivated influenza B , IM. TIV 0.5 ml IM, (15µg HA each strain) + placebo intranasal	Randomized controlled trial, double-blind Original study (Edwards, 1994) covered five influenza seasons (1985-1990) and included adults. This paper is reanalysis of just pediatric portion, and also excludes year 1 because no influenza A circulated that year US (Nashville, Tennessee)	Children 1- <16 years at time of vaccination (data specific to children aged 1 to <6 excluded here) Subjects immunized each fall for up to five years, remaining as originally grouped. $N_{doses\ over\ 5\ years\ of[\ either\ laiv\ or\ tiv\ or\ placebo]}$ = 1,809 (1/year/participant) N children=791 Not all children participated all years. Average 25% dropout rate/year (NSD between study arm or age group) replaced by annual recruitment. *Cumulative year and naive vaccinees not described or differentiated in efficacy results* n 6-10 years: 302 n 11-15 years: 218 6-15 year group represents 66% of total children	**Outcomes:** 1) Efficacy versus culture-confirmed influenza A 2) Efficacy versus influenza A seroconversion (rate of subjects with four-fold rise in HAI titer) over influenza season (post-vaccination to post-season). **Results:** Seasonal circulating A viruses for the five years were: Y1-none (B only; data excluded) Y2-H1N1 (drifted from vaccine strain) Y3-H3N2 (drifted from vaccine strain) Y4-H1N1 (good match) Y5-H3N2 (good match) **Efficacy versus lab-confirmed influenza A Efficacy (%, 95% CI) in H1N1- circulating years:** LAIV: 95% (67-99) TIV: 91% (64-98) Influenza-positive rates (control, LAIV, TIV): 21/294, 1/311, 2/327, respectively **Efficacy in H3N2- circulating years:** LAIV: 68% (1-90)	Level I	Fair

Evidence for LAIV Effectiveness

STUDY DETAILS					SUMMARY	
Study	Vaccine	Study Design	Participants	Summary of Key Findings Using Text or Data	Level of Evidence	Quality

	Control: inactivated monovalent influenza B, IM + placebo intranasal
	
	 Vaccine strains as per annual recom-mendations. 2/4 reported years had mismatch
			Vaccination groups:
			
			 Group n(6-10year) n(11-15year)
			
			 Control 102 77
			
			 LAIV 99 80
			
			 TIV 106 62
			
			 N.B. Vaccination groups include n=5 (6-10-year-olds) and n=1 (11-15-year-olds) that only participated in year 1 (when no A virus circulated), and therefore are excluded from the study total (N=791)
				TIV: 77% (20-93)
				
				 Influenza-positive rates (control, LAIV, TIV):
				
				 12/280, 4/289, 3/308, respectively
				
				 Please note that too few culture-positive illnesses to assess above by age group.
				
				 High efficacy despite circulation of antigenically drifted strains during two of the four years (one H1N1 year, one H3N2 year).
				
				 Efficacy versus influenza-season seroconversion
				
				 LAIV: 78% (64-86) in H1N1 years.
				
				     26% (14-52) in H3N2 years.
				
				 TIV: 67% (51-78) in H1N1 years.
				
				     65% (39-84) in H3N2 years.
				
				 Rates of seroconversion (control, LAIV, TIV)
				
				 H1N1 years.
				
				 6-10 years: 35.0, 3.9, 8.3, respectively		

Evidence for LAIV Effectiveness

STUDY DETAILS					SUMMARY	
Study	Vaccine	Study Design	Participants	Summary of Key Findings Using Text or Data	Level of Evidence	Quality
				11-15 years: 30.7, 6.2, 6.0, respectively H3N2 years. 6-10 years: 19.6, 6.4, 5.1 11-15 years: 12.4, 19.1, 3.6, respectively **Summary:** Both LAIV and TIV showed similar high efficacy in H1N1 years (91%, 95%, respectively versus confirmed influenza) and lesser but still substantial efficacy in H3N2 years, with TIV point estimate somewhat higher than LAIV in the latter. Authors note bias between groups in seroconversion data. Reviewer notes influenza-confirmed data had high loss to follow-up and mixed effect of unknown proportion of young children (<6 years). Also, caution interpreting differences between younger versus older 6-15-year-olds: comparability between 6-10 versus 11-15 groups uncertain.		

Evidence for LAIV Effectiveness

STUDY DETAILS					SUMMARY	
Study	Vaccine	Study Design	Participants	Summary of Key Findings Using Text or Data	Level of Evidence	Quality
Piedra PA, Gaglani MJ, Kozinetz CA, et al. Herd immunity in adults against influenza-related illnesses with use of the trivalent-live attenuated influenza vaccine (CAIV-T) in children. Vaccine 2005;23(13):1540-8	LAIV (CAIV-T; MedImmune), 0.25mL per nostril (10^{6-7} $TCID_{50}$ per strain) Single dose Vaccines of 1998/1999, 1999/2000, and 2000/2001 During Y3 (2000/2001), only 1/3 of vaccinees received vaccination prior to outbreak. Vaccine shortage and delayed distribution of TIV as well.	Open label, non-randomized community-based trial pre-licensure phase III trial 1998/1999-2000/2001 (three seasons) Same trial years and data set as Gaglani et al. 2004, but this analysis focuses on adult outcomes following children's vaccine program Temple-Belton (intervention) versus Waco/Bryan & College Station (comparison), Texas, USA	**LAIV Vaccinees**: Healthy children aged 18 months to 18 years (unhealthy children received TIV under the program) Cumulative children vaccinated in intervention community N=9,765 (N=4,774 were members of SWHP [health plan], from whose administrative database, data were analyzed) 20-25% of age-eligible children received LAIV each year in intervention community versus none in comparison communities **Outcome group:** SWHP members in intervention and comparison communities (all ages, age-stratified). SWHP members as % population: Intervention: ~64-70% Comparison: ~20-24%	**Outcomes assessed:** MAARI rates by age **Results:** Pre-campaign (control) influenza season: Intervention community had significantly reduced MAARI risk versus comparison communities: Ranging from lowest RR of 0.84 (0.77-0.91) in 12-17 year-age group to highest RR of 1.02 (0.91-1.15) in 45-54 year age group. Over all ages RR=0.93 (0.95-0.96) Study seasons: Significantly reduced risk for MAARI in adults ≥35 years in intervention versus comparison communities, with 1-RR point estimate ranging from 0.08-0.18 over the three years. Estimated medical visits avoided in intervention community adults ≥35-year-olds: 303-781 (152-973) per year of program. Fig. 2 demonstrates no direct effectiveness against MAARI rates in vaccinee age groups, suggesting MAARI risk increased instead. Not reflected in tabular results	Level II-1	Poor Several non-comparabilities between comparator groups. Text suggests higher adult community vaccine coverage in intervention, but fails to report levels from SWHP database. Questionable regrouping of age stratifications in results analysis

Evidence for LAIV Effectiveness

STUDY DETAILS					SUMMARY	
Study	Vaccine	Study Design	Participants	Summary of Key Findings Using Text or Data	Level of Evidence	Quality
	Vaccines were good match to circulating viruses in years 1 and 2. In year 3(00/01), A strains well matched; B mismatched. Circulating strains 2000/2001: A/H1N1 (New Caledonia/20/99); B/Sichuan (not included in vaccine); B/Beijing (as included in vaccine). Surveillance sample ratio 23:8:2, respectively		Background vaccination (TIV): Children: 1.5-2.5% each year in intervention community; <1% in comparison communities Adults: not reported, other than: "distributed [TIV] in proportion to the [SWHP] patient populations".	since authors pooled these groups with adults. Authors attribute relatively lower MAARI risk in middle and older age adults of the intervention community to indirect effects of vaccine program although confidence intervals overlap with those of pre-campaign RR in each age group and year save year 2 for >64-year-olds.		

Evidence for LAIV Effectiveness

STUDY DETAILS					SUMMARY	
Study	**Vaccine**	**Study Design**	**Participants**	**Summary of Key Findings Using Text or Data**	**Level of Evidence**	**Quality**
Piedra PA, Gaglani MJ, Kozinetz CA, et al. Trivalent live attenuated intranasal influenza vaccine administered during the 2003-2004 influenza type A (H3N2) outbreak provided immediate, direct, and indirect protection in children. Pediatrics. 2007;120:E553-E564	**LAIV (MedImmune)** 2003-2004 (healthy children) 0.5 ml nasal **TIV (children with health conditions)** 0.5 ml IM Single dose at enrollment. N=88 of 897 <9-year-olds eligible for second dose received it prior to last day of epidemic and only 58% subjects received a first dose prior to peak week Vaccination	Prospective, multiyear open label, non-randomized trial Used health-plan administrative data Intervention community: (with school vaccine program) Temple-Belton Comparison communities (pooled; no school vaccine program): Waco & Bryan College Station "Influenza season:	**Vaccinees:** 5-18-year-olds in intervention communities n(LAIV)=4961 n(TIV)=1944 Coverage: ~31% of schoolchildren in intervention community (5-9-year-olds = 40.6%, 10-18-year-olds = 26.4%) -TIV background (outside study) higher in intervention community for <5-year-olds and >65-year-olds; higher in comparison communities for all other age groups. **Outcome measures:** members of population that were SWHP (health plan) members, all ages, both communities N (population; SWHP members): Intervention Community Total = 103,719; 66,509 (64 %) 5-9 years=7635; 5004	**Primary Outcomes:** Direct and indirect effectiveness against MAARI and P&I (and versus lab-confirmed influenza for surveillance sub-population). Direct: vaccinated 5-18-year-olds versus unvaccinated 5-18-year-olds in intervention community. Indirect: MAARI rate over influenza period in intervention versus comparison communities. **Results:** Direct effectiveness in 5-18-year-olds 1) versus influenza-positive ARI: -Significant protection by LAIV in 2003 versus no vaccine: LAIV cases: 19/55 (34.5%) versus 127/231 (55%) in non-vaccinees, p=0.006. NSD for: LAIV received in previous years but not in 2003 (34/79; 43%); TIV (14/24; 58.3%) 2) versus P&I; RR (95%Ci) Significant reduction in P&I for LAIV recipients versus	Level II-1	Poor Inaccurate averaging approach to correct for complex vaccination versus outbreak activity timing differences between groups and individuals. Non-comparability in background vaccination rates. Authors conclusions regarding immediacy of LAIV-specific protection do not appear supported by data.

Evidence for LAIV Effectiveness

STUDY DETAILS					SUMMARY	
Study	Vaccine	Study Design	Participants	Summary of Key Findings Using Text or Data	Level of Evidence	Quality
	period: October 10-December 30 Outbreak period: October 12-December 20 Epidemic primarily caused by circulating H3N2 that was an A/Fujian drift variant (vaccine strain was A/Panama).	2003-2004 NCT00138294 Texas, USA	10-18 years=14,302; 8388 Comparison Communities (pooled): All ages=312,076; 50,565 (16%) 5-9-year=20,652; 3264 10-18 years=40,376; 5706 Number seeking care for ARI at surveillance sites: n (intervention): 1003 n (comparison): 547	non-vaccinees. 5-9 years: 0.2 (0.04-0.60) 5-18 years :0.5 (0.2-0.9) NSD in TIV group 3) versus MAARI rates NSD for 5-9-year-olds or for 10-18-year-olds, LAIV or TIV Indirect Effectiveness versus MAARI (between communities) -Data not reported for same age groups as above -Significant indirect protection attributed to vaccination program in intervention community, for: 5-11-year-olds: RR=0.87 (.80-.95) 35-44-year-olds: RR=0.91 (0.83-1.00)		
Poehling KA, Talbot HK, Williams JV, et al. Impact of a school-based influenza immunization program on	LAIV (Medimmune) 2006/2007 formulation	Prospective cohort Includes surveillance data from regions' children's hospital (two hospitals total,	**Vaccine program target group:** Knox County 5-17-year-olds. Coverage achieved: 48%. All children (in Knox and Control) could receive vaccination outside the program at their own costs.	**Outcomes Assessed:** Direct (5-12-year-olds) and indirect (0-4-year-olds) effectiveness of vaccination program against lab-confirmed influenza. All enrollees were RT-PCR-tested for influenza.	Level II-2	Fair

Evidence for LAIV Effectiveness

STUDY DETAILS					SUMMARY	
Study	**Vaccine**	**Study Design**	**Participants**	**Summary of Key Findings Using Text or Data**	**Level of Evidence**	**Quality**
disease burden: Comparison of two Tennessee counties. Vaccine. 2009;27:2695-2700.	One dose (unless <9 and first time, then two doses, or classified partial vaccination) Children classified unvaccinated unless received ≥ 14 days prior to enrollment. Only 1 (H1N1) of four circulating strains was a good match in vaccine. No significant difference between counties for match (based on 22+14=38 characterized	one in each study arm). Intervention: Knox County (with school vaccine program) Control: Davidson County (without school vaccine program) Tennessee, USA	**Outcome measure group: all** children <13 years in both counties who presented to the ED or outpatient clinic at the children's hospital in each county, with a parental report of respiratory symptoms (ARI) or fever. Enrolled: N=887 (87% of eligible presenters) n(Knox)=443 n(Davidson)=447 Vaccination status of outcome group assessed and verified (registry, or at clinic of receipt) Exclusions: - not eligible if had been enrolled in previous four days -If multiple children available concurrently, only the first triaged child approached for study inclusion.	**Results:** Influenza-positive : Knox: n=95 (22% of 437) Davidson: n=79 (18% of 444) **NSD p=0.14** (Note numbers are slightly different than enrolled n's because n=6 Knox and n=3 Davidson samples were excluded as inadequate swabbing; i.e. lack of B-actin on three separate analyses) Age breakdown: 0-4-year-olds: more Knox than Davidson had influenza (18% versus 10%, p=0.01) 5-12-year-olds: similar proportion of children from the two counties had influenza (28% versus 27%, p=0.85) Vaccination status of enrollees: 0.5-4-year-olds: estimated coverage comparable between groups (36% versus 33%, p=0.69) 5-12-year-olds: an estimated 32% absolute difference in vaccination coverage (44% in Knox versus 12% in Davidson).		

Evidence for LAIV Effectiveness

STUDY DETAILS					SUMMARY	
Study	Vaccine	Study Design	Participants	Summary of Key Findings Using Text or Data	Level of Evidence	Quality
	samples).			**Summary:** Neither direct nor indirect effectiveness of vaccine program were demonstrable despite verified higher vaccination in target age Knox study participants. Authors speculate that direct effectiveness on 5-12-year-olds may be interpreted, but reviewer notes caveat that argument (though plausible) rests on a comparison between rates whose methods of calculation render them not directly comparable.		
Talbot HK, Poehling KA, Williams JV et al. Influenza in older adults: impact of vaccination of school children. Vaccine 2009; 27; 1923-27.	LAIV (Medimmune) 2006/2007 formulation. Administered between September and December 2006 in school vaccination program	Prospective cohort Four surveillance hospitals (two in each study county) Intervention: county with school vaccine program (Knox County) Control: County without school vaccine program (Davidson County)	**Vaccine program target group:** 5-17-year-olds in Knox County. **Coverage:** 47% of Knox County's 54,786 public school students and 61% of 5998 private school children. Control county children had no school vaccination program. (Authors quote 12% vaccination of 5-12-year-olds there) **Outcome measure population:** All adults 50 years old or over, hospitalized for ARI or non-localizing fever at four active surveillance hospitals (2/county) on surveillance days over the influenza season. N=532	**Outcome assessed:** Population-based rates of lab-confirmed (RT-PCR) influenza-hospitalizations during influenza season, in adults 50 years and older (indirect effects of vaccination of school-age children). **Results:** Knox county: influenza+ n=16, influenza-negative n=329 Control county: influenza+ n=14, influenza-negative n=173 Age breakdown of influenza+ cases: 50-64 years: Knox n=4, Control n=10 65+ years: Knox n=12, Control n=4 Estimated rates/1000 adults of 50+years of influenza+	Level II-2	Poor

Evidence for LAIV Effectiveness

STUDY DETAILS					SUMMARY	
Study	Vaccine	Study Design	Participants	Summary of Key Findings Using Text or Data	Level of Evidence	Quality
		Tennessee, USA	Intervention n=345 Control n=187	confirmed- hospitalizations (95% CI lower, upper) in Knox and Davidson, respectively: Overall: 1.28 (0.59, 2.04) versus 1.53 (0.71, 2.34) NSD p=0.7 Aged 65+ subgroup: 2.56 (0.96, 4.33) versus 1.19 (0.18, 2.44) NSD p=0.2 Aged 50-64 subgroup: 0.40 (0.07, 0.81) versus 1.74 (0.69, 2.85), p=0.01 Significantly more adults >50 years old were vaccinated in Knox than control county (p=0.004). Age breakdown: Aged 65+ subgroup: 76.1% versus 67.2% (9% higher, p=0.08) Aged 50-64 subgroup: 55.7% versus 44.6% (11% higher, p=0.07) Summary: Authors report indirect effectiveness of vaccine program on population influenza rate in 50-64 year age group. Reviewer notes caveat: population rates estimated from as few as n=4 influenza cases. Adjustment factors applied exceed measurements markedly. Risk of large error in reported rates. Potential indirect effects difficult to separate from potential direct effects of higher adult vaccination rate.		

Evidence for LAIV Effectiveness

STUDY DETAILS					SUMMARY	
Study	Vaccine	Study Design	Participants	Summary of Key Findings Using Text or Data	Level of Evidence	Quality
Wiggs-Stayner KS, Purdy TR, Go GN, et al. The impact of mass school immunization on school attendance. J School Nurs 2006; 22:219-22	LAIV (FluMist) 0.25 ml/nostril One dose for >9-year-olds Two doses, 60 days apart for previously unvaccinated 5-8-year-olds	Prospective cohort Two intervention schools (one and two) versus two control schools (three and four). Free LAIV offered to all medically eligible staff and students at intervention schools 2004/2005 season Illinois, USA	Low-socioeconomic status 5-11-year-olds (and some teachers) in an urban school system N=277/551 children (50% coverage) and 44 teachers vaccinated in two intervention schools Vaccination outside the study not reported, but lack of funds and transportation for preventive health care noted for both the intervention and control populations	**Outcome assessed:** attendance rate over the school year (all-cause absenteeism) **Results:** 2004/2005 Absentee Rate (per [n x enrollment days]) Control schools=0.0542 Intervention schools=0.0399 (73.6% of control) Significantly lower absenteeism in intervention than control schools, p<0.001 Previous year (pre-intervention) attendance rates similar between all four schools Intervention schools 1 and 2: 95.3%, 93.9%, Control schools 3 and 4: 94.6%, 94.6% Intervention schools increased attendance relative to pre-intervention year 1 and 2: 96.1%, 95.8 Control schools did not. 3 and 4: 94.4%, 94.7% **Summary:** decreased absenteeism associated wth intervention	Level II-2	Fair

Table 3. Immunogenicity of TIV

Evidence for TIV Immunogenicity

STUDY DETAILS					SUMMARY	
Study	Vaccine	Study Design	Participants	Summary of Key Findings Using Text or Data	Level of Evidence	Quality
Domachowske JB, Blatter M, Chandrasekaran V, et al. A randomized, controlled trial in children to assess the immunogenicity and safety of a thimerosal-free trivalent seasonal influenza vaccine. Pediatr Infect Dis J. 2012;31:605-615.	TIV Study vaccine: Flulaval (GSK) thimerosal-free Active comparator: Fluzone (Sanofi Pasteur) thimerosal-free 2009/2010 seasonal recommended strains One dose of 0.5ml IM, or two doses for indicated children <9 years old.	Randomized, observer-blind, multicenter study 2009/2010 influenza season Non-inferiority trial Children were randomized (1:1) to receive either study or comparator vaccine, balanced distribution for age, center, prior influenza immunization status, and intent to receive or have already received H1N1 pandemic vaccine.	Healthy children 3-17 years old Vaccinated cohort: N=2116 (74.7% were 5-17 years old) Study n=1055 (73.9% 5-17years) Control n=1061 (75.5% 5-17 years) Age (years), mean ± SD, median Study 7.8 ± 4.18, 7.0 Control 7.8 ± 4.10, 7.0 Per-protocol immunogenicity cohort: study vaccine n=987 control vaccine n=979 Three age categories: 3-4, 5-8 and 9-17 years (3-4 year-old specific results not shown here)	**Outcomes Assessed:** Primary non-inferiority of study vaccine to control vaccine (geometric mean titer [GMT] and seroconversion rate [SCR], pre vaccine versus 28 days post). Secondary - to describe immunogenicity for the different age categories. **Results:** Non-inferiority criteria and CBER criteria for clinical benefit were met for all three seasonal virus strains in all children and each age strata. Ratios of adjusted GMTs (control / study vaccine) ranged from 0.93 to 1.03 for the three virus strains. Differences in seroconversion rate (control minus study vaccine) were between -2.42% and -1.60%. Post-vaccination GMTs (range: 213.7-414.7 versus 200.2-451.9) and SCR (range: 59.8-81.1% versus 58.2-78.6%) were comparable for the two vaccines.	Level I	Good

Evidence for TIV Immunogenicity

STUDY DETAILS					SUMMARY	
Study	Vaccine	Study Design	Participants	Summary of Key Findings Using Text or Data	Level of Evidence	Quality

	Second dose 28 days after first. Each dose contained 15 µg HA for each strain
	
	NCT00980005
		US	5-8 years:
			
			  Study vaccine n=353
			
			  control vaccine n=353
			
			9-17 years:
			
			  study vaccine n=359
			
			control vaccine n=365
				Immunogenicity per age group
				
				Within age groups, response was similar to both vaccines.
				
				FDA/CBER criteria exceeded for all three strains within each age group for both seroconversion and seroprotection.
				
				Between age groups, 9-17-year-olds had higher GMTs (pre- and post) to A/Brisbane than 5-8-year-olds; however, seroprotection and seroconversion rates and factors were similar between the age groups.
				
				All other responses appeared similar between age groups with overlapping CIs (including a fourth HA assayed, which was pdmH1N1.
				
				Summary:
				
				Flulaval was non-inferior to Fluzone. 5-8-year-olds and 9-17-year-olds showed similar serologic response to each other.		

Evidence for TIV Immunogenicity

STUDY DETAILS					SUMMARY	
Study	Vaccine	Study Design	Participants	Summary of Key Findings Using Text or Data	Level of Evidence	Quality
Neuzil KM, Jackson LA, Nelson J, et al. Immunogenicity and reactogenicity of one versus two doses of trivalent inactivated influenza vaccine in vaccine-naive 5-8-year-old children. J Infect Dis. 2006;194:1032-1039	TIV (Sanofi-Pasteur) 2004/2005 formulation All children received two doses of 0.5 ml TIV, four weeks apart.	Prospective, open-label study of one versus two doses in each patient. Seattle, USA	Healthy, vaccine-naïve 5-8-year-olds who were members of a health organization (with immunization registry) since birth. Immunogenicity cohort: n=222	**Outcomes assessed:** Primary: comparison of Ab response (determined by HAI) after one versus two doses (proportion of children with seroprotective titres ≥40 and GMT). **Results:** Seroprotection Effect of dose on protective Ab response differed by baseline serostatus. Those seropositive at baseline achieved 95%, 100%, 95% protective Ab responses to A/H1N1, A/H3N2, B, respectively, after only one dose. Those seronegative at baseline Ab responses had low responses after one dose. Significantly higher proportion of children had protective Ab responses after two doses for all antigens (p<0.01-p<0.001). [multivariate analysis adjusting for age, sex, number of doses and baseline serostatus]. Among initially seronegative children an additional 50%, 51%, and 31% developed protective responses to A/H1N1, A/H3N2, and B, respectively, after the second dose. GMTs A second dose only increased GMTs significantly in seronegative children, not in initially seropositive children.	Level II-1	Good

Evidence for TIV Immunogenicity

STUDY DETAILS					SUMMARY	
Study	Vaccine	Study Design	Participants	Summary of Key Findings Using Text or Data	Level of Evidence	Quality
				-Children who were seropositive at baseline had significantly higher HAI GMTs after one dose than did seronegative children after two doses. **Summary:** Immunogenic benefit of the two-dose regimen in vaccine-naïve 5-8-year-olds was demonstrated; however the benefit was derived by increasing the proportion of seronegative children who achieved a protective Ab response and not by any apparent benefit to children who were already seropositive at baseline.		
Sasaki S, Jaimes MC, Holmes TH, et al. Comparison of the influenza virus-specific effector and memory B-cell responses to immunization of children and adults with live attenuated or inactivated influenza virus vaccines. J Virol. 2007;81(1):215-228.	LAIV FluMist or TIV Fluzone (children were 1:1 randomized to vaccine type) 2004/2005 vaccines included the same H1N1 and H3N2 for both vaccines, but B differed (B/Jiangsu or B/Jilin for TIV or LAIV, respectively)	RCT, active controlled serology Exploratory study 2004/2005 influenza season US	Healthy adults and children 6 months - 9 years old, *only data from 5-9-year-olds presented here*). N (5-9-year-olds)=39 However, some data appears to be missing, and the n included is not always clear; for example: Pre-vaccination effector B cell testing n=36 7-12 day post vaccination effector B cell testing n appears to be n=19, not clear. Thirty days post vaccination effector B cell testing n=17	**Outcomes assessed:** Peripheral blood mononuclear cell (PBMC)-based influenza-specific IgA and IgG responses to LAIV and TIV (assessed by Elispot assay using TIV from 2002-2003 and 2004-2005 as capture antigen). Selected HAI and neutralizing antibody responses also reported. **Results:** Effector B cell responses 7-12 days post-vaccination versus pre-vaccination -NSD between LAIV/TIV in the proportion of children demonstrating an IgA response (p=0.500) or an IgG response (p=0.180) -NSD in magnitude of such IgA or IgG responses. Mean number of cells expressing IgA/IgG per million PBMC	Level I	Poor

Evidence for TIV Immunogenicity

STUDY DETAILS					SUMMARY	
Study	Vaccine	Study Design	Participants	Summary of Key Findings Using Text or Data	Level of Evidence	Quality
	5-9-year-olds: Single dose for 19 children immunized the previous season; two doses for 20 vaccine naïve children (second dose 28 days [TIV] or 42 days [LAIV] after first dose).			±SEM (over and above nonspecific signals): IgA 3±1 versus 4±1 (NSD, no p value reported) IgG 35±9 versus 56± 15 p=0.152 Memory B cells circulating 30 days post- versus pre-vaccination -LAIV- No apparent effect: NSD post versus pre, IgA or IgG memory cells -TIV- significant increase of 1.35%± 0, 23% in circulating IgG memory cells (p<0.001). IgA memory cells NSD HAI and Neutralizing Antibody Assays Significantly greater proportion of 5-9-year-olds seroconverted after TIV than LAIV, for H3N2 antigen only. Authors omit results from H1N1 and B from text and tables. Reviewer notes some study weaknesses: low signals (i.e. high potential for error); backgrounds and compound error of their subtraction not shown; multiple comparisons made without adjustment of p values for significance; missing data; questionable equivalence of capture antigen for the two vaccine groups. **Summary:** In 5-9-year-olds no differences between peripheral B cell responses to TIV versus LAIV except that TIV induced an increased % memory B cells, whereas LAIV did not.		

Evidence for TIV Immunogenicity

STUDY DETAILS					SUMMARY	
Study	Vaccine	Study Design	Participants	Summary of Key Findings Using Text or Data	Level of Evidence	Quality
Schmidt-Ott R, Schwarz T, Haase R, Sander H, Walther U, Fourneau M, Htun-Myint L, Saenger R, Schuster V. Immunogenicity and reactogenicity of a trivalent influenza split vaccine in previously unvaccinated children aged 6-9 and 10-13 years. Vaccine. 2007;26:32-40.	TIV Influsplit/Fluarix, GSK 0.5 ml IM, single dose for 10-13-year-olds, two doses, 28 days apart for 6-9-year-olds.	Prospective, open phase IV clinical trial 2005-2006 influenza season Conducted in 18 centres in Germany	Children aged 6—13 years, healthy or with underlying chronic disease. All subjects influenza vaccine-naïve and without prior laboratory-confirmed influenza disease. Immunogenicity cohort: n (6-9 years)=97 n (10-13 years)=106	**Outcomes assessed:** Descriptive comparison of immunogenicity after one versus two doses in children 6-9 or one dose in children 10-13. **Results:** CHMP criteria for HI antibody response met for all three vaccine strains after one vaccine dose in 10-13-year-olds and after two doses in 6-9-year-olds. -Seroprotection rates increase with age for A/H1N1 and B/Jiangsu (from 51.7% and 55.2% in 6-year-olds to 93.3% and 100% in 13-year-olds, respectively). -In contrast, age had no pronounced effect on the A/H3N2-specific seroprotection rate, which was already high in 6-year-olds (89.7%). -Antibody response significantly lower in seronegative than seropositive children (all ages); a single dose failed to meet CHMP critieria in seronegative children (versus 99% seroresponse rate in seropositive children). -6-9-year-old group significantly lower immunogenic response after one dose than 10-13-year-olds. - A marked benefit in 8-year-olds after dose two even though one dose would be sufficient against all strains by this age.	Level II-2	Fair

Evidence for TIV Immunogenicity

STUDY DETAILS					SUMMARY	
Study	Vaccine	Study Design	Participants	Summary of Key Findings Using Text or Data	Level of Evidence	Quality
				Summary: Highly immunogenic; results support two dose recommendation in children <9 years who were not previously vaccinated		
Tregnaghi MW, Stamboulian D, Carina Vanadia P, et al. Immunogenicity, safety, and tolerability of two trivalent subunit inactivated influenza vaccines: A phase III, observer-blind, randomized, controlled multicenter study. Viral Immunol. 2012;25:216-225.	TIV Comparison of two Sanofi Pasteur vaccines Study vaccine: Agrippal (appears comparable to Canadian-licensed Agriflu) Comparator vaccine: Fluvirin (appears comparable to Canadian-licensed Fluzone) One dose (9-17 years) or two	Phase III, observer-blind, randomized controlled multicentre trial Carried out April-December 2007. Authors note that the onset of influenza season overlapped with enrolment and may have caused some confounding Argentina NCT 00464672	N=1893 healthy 3-64-year-olds, including 3-8-year-olds: n=601 9-17 yearolds: n=600 Randomized 2:1 for study: comparator vaccine All 3-8-year-olds were vaccine naïve, aged 5.5±1.7 years and 5.4±1.7 years (mean± SD of each vaccine group) 9-17-year-olds 12.8±2.6 and 12.7±2.6 (mean age± SD for each vaccine group). Prior vaccine status, gender, race, height, weight, evenly distributed between groups.	**Outcomes assessed:** HAI assay of serum pre-vaccination and 21 days post (adolescents) or 28 day post dose-1 and 21 days post dose-two for 3-8-year-olds. Seroprotection (titre≥1:40), seroconversion (post/pre titre≥4-fold), GMT, GMTR **Results:** - All three strains met CBER immunogenicity criteria for all three virus strains in both vaccine types and age groups. - In 3-8-year-olds, CBER criteria already met for both A strains after first dose; second dose increased responses and brought response to influenza B strain up to criteria level. - Robust immunogenic responses with point estimates for seroconverstion to A/H1N1, A/H3N2 and B as follows: 9-17-year-olds: Study vaccine: 92%, 68%, 81% Comparator vaccine: 91%, 92%, 74%	Level I	Fair

Evidence for TIV Immunogenicity

STUDY DETAILS					SUMMARY	
Study	Vaccine	Study Design	Participants	Summary of Key Findings Using Text or Data	Level of Evidence	Quality
	doses four weeks apart for 3-8-year-olds, 15 µg of each strain per dose			3-8-year-olds after two doses Study vaccine: 91%, 84%, 80% Comparator vaccine: 93%, 90%, 75% Reviewer notes lower immunogenic response to H3N2 strain for study versus comparator vaccine in 9-17 years and similar trend in 3-8 years (but some CI interval overlap in younger age group): 9-17 years: H3N2 seroconversion (%, 95% CI) Study vaccine: 68% (63-72%) Comparator vaccine: 92% (87-95%) Pre/post GMTs Study vaccine: 78 (68-88)/492(452-536) Comparator vaccine: 71 (60-86)/1423(1261-1606) 3-8 years: H3N2 seroconversion: Study vaccine: 84% (80-88%) Comparator vaccine: 90% (85-94%) Pre/post GMTs		

Evidence for TIV Immunogenicity

STUDY DETAILS					SUMMARY	
Study	Vaccine	Study Design	Participants	Summary of Key Findings Using Text or Data	Level of Evidence	Quality
				Study vaccine: 61 (53-70)/611(525-711) Comparator vaccine: 70 (58-86)/1262(1084-1469) **Summary:** Both vaccines elicited a robust immunogenic response and met CBER criteria for all three strains; however authors overlooked discussing a potential lower H3N2 immunogenicity of study vaccine versus comparator, and there is an unclear potential for confounding by influenza illness.		

Table 4. Immunogenicity of LAIV

Evidence for LAIV Immunogenicity						
STUDY DETAILS					**SUMMARY**	
Study	Vaccine	Study Design	Participants	Summary of Key Findings Using Text or Data	Level of Evidence	Quality

Block SL, Yogev R, Hayden FG, et al. Shedding and immunogenicity of live attenuated influenza vaccine virus in subjects 5-49 years of age. Vaccine. 2008;26(38):4940-6	LAIV
	
	FluMist
	
	Frozen formulation recommended for previous season (2003/2004) administered out of influenza season
	
	0.25mL per nostril (10^7 TCID$_{50}$)
	
	Single dose
		Phase IV, open-label clinical trial, multicentre
		
		2004/2005
		
		11 sites, USA
			N=343 healthy children and adults
			
			Three age cohorts (5-8, 9-17, 18-49 years)
			
			n 5-8=102
			
			n9-17=126
			
			n18-49=115
			
			(*adult results omitted here*)
			
			Mean years age (SD)
			
			5-8 year cohort :6.7 (1.1)
			
			9-17 year cohort: 12.8 (2.6)
				Outcomes assessed:
				
				Strain-specific HAI titers at 28 days post-immunization versus pre-immunization, and seroresponse (≥4 fold rise in HAI compared to baseline)
				
				Results:
				
				Seroresponse to any strain:
				
				Age 5-8: 67.7% (57.4- 76.9)
				
				Age 9-17: 63.7% (54.6-72.2)
				
				Seroresponse to specific strains:
				
				5-8 and 9-17-year-olds similar response to each other for A/H1N1 and A/H3N2, but differed in response to B:
				
				Geometric mean fold rise (95% CI)//%seroresponse (CI)
				
				5-8 years: 2.43 (2.1-2.6)//41.7% (31.7-52.2)
				
				9-17 years:1.37 (1.2-1.5)//21.0% (14.2-29.2)
				
				Summary:
				Moderate seroresponsiveness to any strain was demonstrated, with similar rates between the younger and
					Level II-2	Good
						
						(if omitting seroconvert-sion data as shown; otherwise fair (non-comparabilit y between age groups due to differing seroconvert-sion definitions per age).

Evidence for LAIV Immunogenicity

STUDY DETAILS					SUMMARY	
Study	Vaccine	Study Design	Participants	Summary of Key Findings Using Text or Data	Level of Evidence	Quality
				older age subsets of children. Regarding specific strains, 9-17-year-olds had a lower response than 5-8-year-olds, to the B antigen only and similar responses to other strains.		
Block SL, Reisinger KS, Hultquist M, et al. Comparative immunogenicities of frozen and refrigerated formulations of live attenuated influenza vaccine in healthy subjects del. Antimicrobial Agents Chemother. 2007;51:4001-4008.	LAIV, frozen version versus refrigerated formulation (termed 'CAIV-T' in this paper, but termed LAIV in many other sources, and the formulation of LAIV approved for use in Canada) both supplied by MedImmune. Two doses, 46-60 days apart (5-8 years) or one dose (9 years+). 0.25 ml/nostril (frozen) or 0.1 ml/ nostril (refrigerated). Each dose contained ~ 10^7 FFU of each strain	Prospective, phase III, randomized, double-blind, multicenter trial Study conducted off season (between 2003/2004 and 2004/2005 influenza season). Conducted at 26 sites in the US.	Healthy subjects 5-49 years. n 5-8 years=376 n 9-49 year=566 Results evaluated for 88% of 5-8-year-old enrollees and 96% of 9-49-year-olds: 5-8 CAIV-T n=164 LAIV n=168 9-49 CAIV-T n=275 LAIV n=271 (Descriptive stats of 9-49 group suggest >25% but <50% of the group was aged between 9 and 18 years) (NB: An undescribed number of subjects in undescribed study	**Outcomes Assessed**: Immunogenicity: Primary - 28-35 days post-vaccination GMT of HAI titres, regardless of baseline serostatus**. Secondary: seroconversion rate*, seroresponse rate. **Results:** Immunogenicity equivalent between the frozen and refrigerated formulations: GMT ratios (CA IV-T/LAIV) were between 0.96 and 1.24 for all strains in both age groups. - Postvaccination GMT <40 for B and A/H1N1 in both groups. Ranges : influenza B : 11.2-12.8 (across all ages, vaccines) A/H1N1: 11.9-22.1 (across all ages, vaccines) - Post-vaccination GMT to seroprotective levels only for A/H3N2. GMTs: 61.3-68.3 (9-49-year-olds) 140.7-143.5 (5-8-year-olds) Seroresponse rate (% subjects w.≥ four-fold over baseline)	Level 1	Poor to Fair Unclear if a second vaccine is a confounding factor or not Comparisons between age groups difficult due to variable seronegative threshold applied, and external validity regarding 9-18-year-olds marred by inclusion with adults.

Evidence for LAIV Immunogenicity

STUDY DETAILS					SUMMARY	
Study	Vaccine	Study Design	Participants	Summary of Key Findings Using Text or Data	Level of Evidence	Quality
			groups likely received a second (2004/2005) vaccine of undescribed type (TIV/LAIV) during study since authors offered it to all subjects subsequent to study vaccines (whose administration continued until November 2004), and prior to onset of 2004/2005 influenza season. Timing, uptake, etc., not described or accounted for in analysis. A potential confounding factor; however article does not discuss or clarify the point.)	Fig 2, far right panel*: responses to A/H3N2 appeared identical between the age groups; to A/H1N1, similar, to B higher in 5-8-year-olds (due to lower baseline). Greater seroconversion in those seronegative* at baseline, all ages, strains, vaccines. Similar proportions of subjects with post-vaccination titres>1:32 between vaccines for all strains *Please note that authors define seroconversion as only pertaining to subjects who were seronegative at baseline. Authors apply a differing definition of seronegativity to 5-8-year-olds than to 9-49-year-olds. Hence seroresponse rates for 'all' (far right panel of Figure 2) are the only data set of the three presented that are comparable for the two age groups. **As described for study endpoint; however, Table 3 indicates that GMT calculation was adjusted for baseline status, which as noted above was differently defined between age groups		
Sasaki S, Jaimes MC, Holmes TH, et al. Comparison of the influenza virus-specific effector and memory B-cell responses to immunization of children and adults with live	LAIV FluMist or TIV Fluzone (children were 1:1 randomized to vaccine type) 2004/2005 vaccines included the same H1N1 and	RCT, active controlled serology Exploratory study 2004/2005 influenza season	Healthy adults and children 6 months - 9 years old (only data from 5-9-year-olds presented here). N (5-9-year-olds)=39; however, some data appears to be missing, and the n included is not always clear; for example, pre-vaccination effector B cell testing n=36 7-12 day post vaccination effector B cell testing n appears to be n=19, not	Outcomes assessed: Peripheral blood mononuclear cell (PBMC)-based influenza-specific IgA and IgG responses to LAIV and TIV (assessed by Elispot assay using TIV from 2002-2003 and 2004-2005 as capture antigen). Selected HAI and neutralizing antibody responses also reported. Results: Effector B cell responses 7-12 days post-vaccination versus pre-vaccination	Level I	Poor

Evidence for LAIV Immunogenicity

STUDY DETAILS					SUMMARY	
Study	Vaccine	Study Design	Participants	Summary of Key Findings Using Text or Data	Level of Evidence	Quality
attenuated or inactivated influenza virus vaccines. J Virol. 2007;81(1):215-228	H3N2 for both vaccines, but B differed (B/Jiangsu or B/Jilin for TIV or LAIV, respectively) 5-9-year-olds: Single dose for 19 children immunized the previous season; Two doses for 20 vaccine naïve children (second dose 28 days [TIV] or 42 days [LAIV] after first dose)	US	clear Thirty days post vaccination effector B cell testing n=17	-NSD between LAIV/TIV in the proportion of children demonstrating an IgA response (p=0.500) or an IgG response (p=0.180) -NSD in magnitude of such IgA or IgG responses. Mean number of cells expressing IgA/IgG per million PBMC ±SEM (over and above nonspecific signals): IgA 3±1 versus 4±1 (NSD, no p value reported) IgG 35±9 versus 56± 15 p=0.152 *Memory B cells circulating 30 days post- versus pre-vaccination* -LAIV- No apparent effect: NSD post versus pre, IgA or IgG memory cells -TIV- significant increase of 1.35%± 0, 23% in circulating IgG memory cells (p<0.001). IgA memory cells NSD *HAI and Neutralizing Antibody Assays* Significantly greater proportion of 5-9-year-olds seroconverted after TIV than LAIV, for H3N2 antigen only. Authors omit results from H1N1 and B from text and tables *Reviewer notes some study weaknesses: low signals (i.e. high potential for error); backgrounds and compound error of their subtraction not shown; multiple comparisons made without adjustment of p values for significance;*		

Evidence for LAIV Immunogenicity

STUDY DETAILS					SUMMARY	
Study	Vaccine	Study Design	Participants	Summary of Key Findings Using Text or Data	Level of Evidence	Quality
				missing data; questionable equivalence of capture antigen for the two vaccine groups. **Summary:** In 5-9-year-olds no differences between peripheral B cell responses to TIV versus LAIV except that TIV induced an increased % memory B cells, whereas LAIV did not.		

Table 5. Safety of TIV

Evidence for TIV Safety

STUDY DETAILS					SUMMARY	
Study	Vaccine	Study Design	Participants	Summary of Key Findings Using Text or Data	Level of Evidence	Quality
Baxter R, Jeanfreau R, Block SL, et al. A phase III evaluation of immunogenicity and safety of two trivalent inactivated seasonal influenza vaccines in US children. Pediatr Infect Dis J 2010;29:924-930.	2 TIVersus 1) Study vaccine- Fluarix (GSK) 2) Control vaccine-Fluzone (Sanofi Pasteur) One dose (0.5 ml for 5- <18-year-olds, IM) at day 0 or Two doses (days 0 and 28) if previously unvaccinated and younger than nine years. 2006/2007	RCT Mulitcentre, single blind Children stratified by age and randomized to receive either study or control vaccine. For 5-<18-year-olds, randomization was 3:1 study vaccine: control Diary cards for solicited and unsolicited AEs were reviewed with subjects or guardian. 2006/2007 influenza season US (42 sites)	Children from 6 months to <18 years Cohort used for vaccine safety analysis: Study vaccine n=2081 Control vaccine n=1173 5-18-year-olds included above: Study vaccine: n=1340, mean±SD of age=10.5±3.68 years Control vaccine: n=450, mean±SD of age=10.7 ± 3.55 years	**Outcomes assessed:** Primary safety outcome was to detect rare serious events with an occurrence rate of at least 1/300 in 6-month - 18-year-olds. Secondary: AEs (solicited and unsolicited) recorded for 28 days after the first vaccination and 21 days after the second, if appropriate. **Results:** *Rare events* None reported *SAEs in 5-18-year-olds* None fatal, none considered related to vaccination, all resolved Study vaccine group: n=5 Control vaccine group: n 2 *AEs in 5-18-year-olds* Most solicited local AE were mild in intensity and transient. Pain at injection site most common (~60%, both	Level I	Good

Evidence for TIV Safety

STUDY DETAILS					SUMMARY	
Study	Vaccine	Study Design	Participants	Summary of Key Findings Using Text or Data	Level of Evidence	Quality
	vaccine strains. Same HA strains (15µg of each) in both vaccine types. NCT 00383123			vaccine types). Most solicited systemic AE were mild to moderate in intensity and transient. Most frequent solicited systemic AE was muscle aches (30.4% in the study vaccine group and 29.5% in the control vaccine group). Frequency of solicited systemic AE tended to be lower after second dose (both study arms). No clinically relevant differences in unsolicited AE between study arms. **Summary:** Both vaccines demonstrated a good safety and reactogenicity profile, with all reactogenicity/safety endpoints giving similar results for both vaccine groups.		
Cowling BJ, Fang VJ, Nishiura H, et al. Increased risk of noninfluenza respiratory virus infections associated with receipt of inactivated influenza vaccine. Clinical Infectious Diseases. 2012;54:1778-1783.	TIV Vaxigrip (Sanofi-Pasteur) 2008/2009 seasonal vaccine, 0.5 ml Placebo: saline Vaccine administration	RCT, double blind 2008/2009 season Pre- pandemic Data sources: incidence rates by parent report (daily diary + biweekly nurse phone call, home visit upon symptoms). Other	6-15-year-olds: N=115, nTIV=69, n(placebo)=46 *Predominantly pre-teen aged* *n(6-11)=103, n(12-15)=12*	**Outcomes assessed**: Acute upper respiratory tract infection (ARI), ARI with fever (FARI), suspension microarray-confirmed infection for 19 non-influenza respiratory viruses. **Results**: Overall N=134 ARI episodes, including n=49 FARI FARI or ARI Incidence rates Risk for FARI or ARI episodes NSD between TIV and placebo recipients. TIV/placebo RR (95% CI) 272 days (median of both groups) follow up: Winter	Level 1	Fair

Evidence for TIV Safety

STUDY DETAILS					SUMMARY	
Study	Vaccine	Study Design	Participants	Summary of Key Findings Using Text or Data	Level of Evidence	Quality
	completed December 2008; regional peak seasonal influenza activity ~ February 2009	outcomes lab-confirmed following symptomatic illness Hong Kong		ARI 0.92 (0.57-1.50) p=0.74 FARI 0.81 (0.34-1.92) p=0.63 Summer ARI 1.30 (0.78-2.18) p=0.31 FARI 1.49 (0.65-3.38) p=0.33 Viral illness rates per 1000 person-years of follow-up (95% CI) Any of 19 non-influenza viruses: TIV: 390 (250-600) Placebo: 88 (28-270) *(Rates based on 23 confirmed cases, 20 in TIV recipients and three in placebo; note also, 51% of ARI episodes lost to swab follow-up, but no differential loss between treatment arms.)* Significantly higher in TIV recipients, p<0.01 RR for TIV recipients =4.40 (1.31-14.8) Specific viruses: Rhinoviruses and Coxsackie/echoviruses were the majority non-influenza viruses; significantly higher rates (individually) in TIV recipients versus placebo. Most non-influenza viruses were detected in the period		

Evidence for TIV Safety

STUDY DETAILS					SUMMARY	
Study	Vaccine	Study Design	Participants	Summary of Key Findings Using Text or Data	Level of Evidence	Quality
				soon after influenza season (approximately one month post-peak influenza). **Summary:** Despite limitations of small sample size and small number of confirmed infections authors demonstrated statistically significant increased risk for non-influenza infections following TIV (Vaxigrip) versus placebo (saline) vaccination.		
Domachowske JB, Blatter M, Chandrasekaran V, et al. A randomized, controlled trial in children to assess the immunogenicity and safety of a thimerosal-free trivalent seasonal influenza vaccine. Pediatr Infect Dis J. 2012;31:605-615.	TIV Study vaccine: Flulaval (GSK) thimerosal-free Active comparator: Fluzone (Sanofi Pasteur) thimerosal- free 2009/2010 seasonal recommended strains.	Randomized, observer-blind, multicenter study 2009/2010 influenza season Noninferiority trial Children were randomized (1:1) to receive either study or comparator vaccine, balanced distribution for age, centre, prior influenza immunization status, and intent to receive or have already	Healthy children 3-17 years old Vaccinated cohort: N=2116 (74.7% were 5-17 years old) Study n=1055 (73.9% 5-17years) Control n=1061 (75.5% 5-17 years) Age (years), mean ± SD, median Study 7.8 ± 4.18, 7.0 control 7.8 ± 4.10, 7.0 Safety cohort: all of vaccinated cohort	**Outcomes Assessed**: Safety/reactogenicity for the different age categories. Solicited local and general symptoms followed four days, unsolicited symptoms 28 days, SAEs and MAEs 180 days. **Results:** The safety and reactogenicity profiles were similar for both treatment groups in all age strata *Local solicited*- most frequently injection site pain, followed by redness and swelling. *General solicited*-for 5years and older: most commonly muscle aches, followed by headache and fatigue. -Symptoms generally low grade and short-lived, all ages. *Unsolicitied AEs*; 39.9% and 36.5% of study and control groups respectively had at least one, with 6.2% and 5.4%	Level I	Good

Evidence for TIV Safety

STUDY DETAILS					SUMMARY	
Study	Vaccine	Study Design	Participants	Summary of Key Findings Using Text or Data	Level of Evidence	Quality

	One dose of 0.5ml IM, or two doses for indicated children <9 years old. Second dose 28 days after first. Each dose contained 15 µg HA for each strain.
	
	NCT00980005
		received H1N1 pandemic vaccine.
		
		US
				(respectively) considered related to vaccination.
				-Grade 3 AEs: 7.7% in study group, 7.8% in control group (all ages together).
				
				Unsolicited MAEs over six month follow up
				
				- Reported in 42.4% and 40.7% of study and control groups, respectively
				SAEs over 180 days
				
				- No fatal SAEs, none resulted in withdrawal from trial
				
				- Over all ages and vaccines n=16 kids had n=24 SAEs
				
				   Study group: n=10 children (15 SAEs)
				
				   Control group n=6 children (nine SAEs)
				
				- Most classified as infections (i.e. pneumonia, candidiasis): study group n=8, control n=5
				
				- Two SAEs considered by investigator to be related to vaccination (only one of these in the 5-18 year group: a seizure disorder/convulsion following study vaccine administration and, not resolved by the end of the study).		

France E, Glanz J, Xu S, Davis R, Black S, Shinefield H, Zangwill K, Marcy S, Mullooly J, Jackson L, Chen R. Safety	TIV Formulations of: 1995/1996, 1996/1997, 1997/1998,	Retrospective case-crossover (self-controlled screening analysis over four* to six** seasons. *Clinic and ED data ** Hospitalization	Children <18 years old who received TIV and were enrolled continuously in a participating managed care organization for at least 28 days before and after receiving vaccination *(included ~29% children with high-risk conditions).*	**Outcomes assessed:** Primary - the odds of each particular MAE from each particular care setting (outpatient, ED, inpatient) occurring in the two weeks following vaccination versus control 1 and versus control 2 periods. Secondary: MAEs on day 0 (vaccination day), MAEs after second doses for two-dose children.	Level II-2	Poor

Evidence for TIV Safety

STUDY DETAILS					SUMMARY	
Study	Vaccine	Study Design	Participants	Summary of Key Findings Using Text or Data	Level of Evidence	Quality
of the trivalent inactivated influenza vaccine among children - A population-based study. Arch Pediatr Adolesc Med. 2004;158:1031-1036.	1998/1999 (for outpatient and ED data) Inpatient data includes 1993/1994 and 1994/1995 vaccines in addition to above Only a child's first dose considered in primary analysis	data Model evaluated odds of MAE occurring in one period versus another Exposed case 1-14 days post-vaccination MAEs occurring on day 0 (vaccination day) *omitted* from primary analysis Control 1 15-28 days pre-vaccination Control 2 15-28 days post-vaccination Separate analyses	All participants received TIV and had MAE(s) during one of three predefined risk periods. N=251,600 individuals N=438,167 distinct vaccinations (i.e excess over number of individuals indicates individuals who had MAEs after vaccination in different seasons- above does *not* include counts of second doses [if/ap]). Individuals vaccinated in more than one season were analyzed as if they represented independent data points. Hospitalization cohort: from one organization in Southern California; approximately half the total study population *(no demographics given).* Outpatient clinic and ED cohort n=128,679 children (221,484 distinct vaccinations) from four other health organizations *(no demographics given)* Age groups within total population	**Results**: 1-14 d post-vaccine [n visits; n distinct MAEs per setting] Outpatient : 41,383 ; 1165 ED: 1621 ; 230 Hospitalizations: 2214 ; 489 Odds ratios (OR) for 1-14 d versus either control period -Significant OR shown in first half of dataset for 44 MAEs in outpatient setting *(number of MAEs not reported for other settings; no analysis presented for given MAEs across all settings)* - Authors rejected 10 of these based on beliefs - Remaining 34 MAEs were the only ones investigated in the Second half of the data set *(note no data shown on distribution of confounding variables between two sets of data)* - Eleven of the 34 also showed significant OR in the second half of the data set. - Authors rejected other 23 on presumption of chance finding. - 1/11 (diabetes) positive OR for 1-14 day post-vaccination, but correction after medical record review		

Evidence for TIV Safety

STUDY DETAILS					SUMMARY	
Study	Vaccine	Study Design	Participants	Summary of Key Findings Using Text or Data	Level of Evidence	Quality
		for exposed versus control 1, or versus control 2 *(no analysis presented for 15-28 days pre versus 15-28 days post vaccine)*	Mean age ± SD=10 ± 4.6 years *(i.e. 5.4-14.6 years=~67%)* n=8476 (~3.2% of study population, or 6.7% of clinic cohort) experiencing 285 clinic MAEs (~25% of clinic MAEs) were < 2 years old.	nullified association (i.e. database code errors/ambiguities). - A second analysis with higher odds and lower stringency p cutoffs (to reveal potential underpowered rare events) identified another positive association; correction of code error/ambiguities following chart review nullified association.		
		Two step approach analyzed all MAEs in randomly apportioned half of subjects, then only analyzed selected MAEs (that were significant and 'plausible') Datasource: administrative database including five managed care organizations in US.	No information on proportion 2-5 years old or their age-specific MAEs. No age-specfic information regarding occurrence of particular MAEs in 5-18-year-olds. n=623 MAEs (53% of the clinic MAEs) were related to diabetes mellitus (an exclusion criterion for current review; no ages given)	- A subanalysis of younger children also showed nullification of one of two significant findings after chart review, based on diagnostic ambiguities in database. - 10/11 MAEs had negative ORs (i.e. odds lower 1-14 days after vaccination than before). All minor acute illnesses. Authors acknowledge potential bias (e.g. healthy vaccinee, recent visit, expected symptom). - The same 10 MAEs had significantly higher odds of occurring 15-28 days post-vaccine than 1-14 days post-vaccine. Authors interpreted this as indicative of safety since 15-28 days was assigned to control group *(15-28 days post vaccine not directly compared to pre-vaccine).* - Secondary analysis of day 0 MAEs showed that codes that gave negative ORs on days 1-14 post-vaccination had highly positive ORs on day 0. Chart review suggested database coding flawed for this type of study: inability to differentiate pre-vaccine from post-vaccine MAEs on day		

Evidence for TIV Safety

STUDY DETAILS					SUMMARY	
Study	Vaccine	Study Design	Participants	Summary of Key Findings Using Text or Data	Level of Evidence	Quality
				0 using database information. **Summary:** Authors conclude no evidence that important medically attended adverse events occur in the two weeks following vaccination. *Reviewer notes: database information appears unreliable, with 75% of the positive findings nullified and an apparently large number of events (day 0) omitted because of database inaccuracy. Adequacy of risk period and control 2 period questioned, external validity to healthy 5-18-year-olds (specifically) is unclear due to lack of demographic information and age-specific analysis of MAEs.*		
Greene SK, Kulldorff M, Lewis EM, Li R, Yin R, Weintraub ES, Fireman BH, Lieu TA, Nordin JD, Glanz JM, Baxter R, Jacobsen SJ, Broder KR, Lee GM. Near real-time surveillance for influenza vaccine safety: Proof-of-concept in the vaccine safety datalink project. Am J	TIV 2005/2006 2006/2007 2007/2008 formulations (previous season control TIV versus went back to 2000/2001)	Three observational analyses of a multi-site safety surveillance database: 1) Self- controlled case series (comparing risk of selected adverse events in a risk period versus a control period). 2) Difference-in-differences (comparing particular season TIV versus	Members of participating managed care organizations who were vaccinated with TIV in at least one of the three seasons and experienced at least one of the predefined AEs in one of the periods (risk or control) of any season. All ages and health conditions included. Separate analysis of 6 AEs for children aged 6 months-17 years *(no further breakdown or demographics provided).* Number of first doses to children:	**Outcomes assessed**: Relative risk (for vaccinees who experienced any of 10 pre-specified neurological and allergic adverse events during a timeframe including both risk and control periods) of experiencing the event within the risk versus control period. Other analyses compared risk associated with each season's TIV to previous seasons. AEs that were analyzed listed under results. **Results:** -No safety signals detected for children in any of the six predefined AEs for which children were separately assessed (seizures, Bell's Palsy, other cranial nerve disorder, demyelinating disease, peripheral nervous system disorder, allergic reaction other than anaphylaxis). - No safety signals detected (over all ages together) for anaphylaxis, ataxia, meningoencephalitis, or GBS. (Note *GBS was only analyzed versus GBS risk with*	Level II-2	Fair

Evidence for TIV Safety

STUDY DETAILS					SUMMARY	
Study	Vaccine	Study Design	Participants	Summary of Key Findings Using Text or Data	Level of Evidence	Quality
Epidemiol. 2010;171:177-188.		for risk versus other seasons) 3) Poisson-based risk of one AE (GBS), comparing current to previous seasons. Control and risk periods defined separately for each AE as per published literature Database includes eight managed care organizations across seven US states	2005/2006: n=317,108 2006/2007: n=415,446 2007/2008: n=462.998	*previous years' vaccines).* *Reviewer notes limited power to detect increased signals in children: An RR of 1.5 could not be detected with 80% power for any AE in children. Power to detect even a 2.0 RR was only in adequate ranges for seizure or allergic reaction (estimated as 64-96%), but as low as 4% for other AEs. Most but not all AEs were adequately powered to detect a 5.0 RR (demyelinating disease and other cranial nerve disorder still had power as low as 22%).* **Summary:** Using selected adverse events the authors present proof-of-concept for an analytical approach that can be implemented rapidly for near real-time surveillance of influenza vaccine safety. No safety signals were detected using this approach, with the caveat of limited power for analyses specific to children.		

Evidence for TIV Safety

STUDY DETAILS					SUMMARY	
Study	Vaccine	Study Design	Participants	Summary of Key Findings Using Text or Data	Level of Evidence	Quality
Neuzil KM, Dupont WD, Wright PF, et al. Efficacy of inactivated and cold-adapted vaccines against influenza A infection, 1985 to 1990: the pediatric experience. Pediatr Infect Dis J 2001 Aug;20(8):733-740.	TIV/LAIV Vaccines of 1986/1987-1989/1990 (commercial TIV; lab-produced pre-licensure LAIV). One dose only. LAIV- bivalent A/H1N1 and A/H3N2 intranasal drops, 1.0 ml (0.5 ml/strain,10^6 - $10^{7.8}$ plaque-forming U/ml), + inactivated influenza B , IM. TIV 0.5 ml IM, (15µg HA each strain) + placebo intranasal Control: inactivated monovalent	Randomized controlled trial, double-blind Original study (Edwards, 1994) covered five influenza seasons (1985-1990) and included adults. This paper is reanalysis of just pediatric portion, and also excludes year 1 because no influenza A circulated that year. Safety results are also excluded for that year. US (Nashville, Tennessee)	Children 1- <16 years at time of vaccination (*data specific to children aged 1 to<6 excluded here*) Subjects immunized each Fall for up to five years, remaining as originally grouped. $N_{doses\ over\ 5\ years\ of[\ either\ laiv\ or\ tiv\ or\ placebo]}$ = 1,809 (1/year/participant) N children=791 n 6-10 years: 302 n 11-15 years: 218 Not all children participated all years. Average 25% dropout rate/year (NSD between study arm or age group) replaced by annual recruitment. Vaccination groups: Group n(6-10year) n(11-15year) Control 102 77	**Outcomes assessed** Reactogenicity days 0-4 post-vaccination: redness, induration, fever, cough, coryza, and sore throat, SAEs **Results/Summary:** -No serious reactions - Overall reaction rate did not vary appreciably between initial and repeat vaccinations, across study years, or across age subcategories -11-15-year-olds had higher frequency of sore throat after LAIV (12.9%; 95% CI 8.8-18%) than after other vaccines and a higher frequency of arm induration after TIV (14.2%; 9.6-20%) than after other vaccines. -Coryza was the most frequently reported reaction in both 6-10-year-olds (17.0%; 13-22%) and 11-15-year-olds (15.8%; 11-22%), but NSD between vaccines	Level 1	Fair

Evidence for TIV Safety

STUDY DETAILS					SUMMARY	
Study	Vaccine	Study Design	Participants	Summary of Key Findings Using Text or Data	Level of Evidence	Quality
	influenza B, IM + placebo intranasal Vaccine strains as per annual recommenda-tions. 2/4 reported years had mismatch.		LAIV 99 80 TIV 106 62 (NB above includes n=5, 6-10-year-olds and n=1 , 11-15-year-olds not included in total n=791 above because they only participated in year 1 - data is excluded for that year) N of TIV dose-recipients over four years included in analysis: n 6-10 years: 259 n 11-15 years: 176			
Neuzil KM, Jackson LA, Nelson J, et al. Immunogenicity and reactogenicity of one versus two doses of trivalent inactivated influenza vaccine in vaccine-naive 5-8-year-old children. J Infect Dis. 2006;194:1032-	TIV (Sanofi-Pasteur) 2004/2005 formulation All children received two doses of 0.5 ml TIV, four weeks apart.	Prospective, open-label study of one versus two doses in each patient Seattle, USA	Healthy, vaccine-naïve 5-8-year-olds who were members of a health organization (with immunization registry) since birth Safety cohort: N=232 5-6-year-olds n=107 7-8-year-olds n=125	**Outcomes assessed:** Secondary: safety/reactogenicity profile after one and two doses (five-day diary cards including solicited local reactions and fever) **Results:** Fever was rare (<1% of all children) Pain at injection site was most common reaction NSD in proportions of children with redness, swelling, fever, or itching after one dose versus two. Significantly more pain at injection site upon second dose	Level II-1	Fair

Evidence for TIV Safety

STUDY DETAILS					SUMMARY	
Study	Vaccine	Study Design	Participants	Summary of Key Findings Using Text or Data	Level of Evidence	Quality
1039				(71% of children) versus first (59% of children). Moderate pain- p=0.002; severe pain- p=0.001 Increased pain finding primarily driven by older subgroup (5-6 year/olds non-significant trend to more pain , 7-8-year-olds significantly more moderate and severe pain after dose two) No child reported any pain beyond three days post-vaccination **Summary:** Authors note relatively high incidence of pain at injection site in this study, but that overall vaccination was well-tolerated in both age subsets and after both doses.		

Evidence for TIV Safety

STUDY DETAILS					SUMMARY	
Study	Vaccine	Study Design	Participants	Summary of Key Findings Using Text or Data	Level of Evidence	Quality
Rowhani-Rahbar A, Klein NP, Lewis N, et al. Immunization and Bell's palsy in children: A case-centered analysis. Am J Epidemiol. 2012;175:878-885.	TIV Potentially formulations of 2000/2001,2001/2002,2002/2003, 2003/2004, 2004/ 2005, and/or 2005/2006; however data not provided on cases on a per-year basis during this timeframe.	Retrospective case-centred study Novel analysis model comparing the time period of vaccination (as a function of delay to onset of Bell's Palsy) to the expected rate of vaccination during that date range. Data source: Kaiser Permanente Health Plan database, Northern California US	All Bell's Palsy (BP) cases from 2001 through 2006 , <18 years of age and members of the KP health plan for at least one year prior to BP onset, and also vaccinated with TIV within one year prior to BP onset *(non-influenza vaccines not considered in this table).* BP cases meeting above definition but who also had a pre- January 2001 history of BP were excluded *(i.e. potential of vaccination to trigger BP in pre-disposed members of the population is not studied; at-risk children were selected out)* Database cases in age range and over time frame: n=977 -Excluded for prior BP n=34 -Rejected as cases by adjudicator review n=119 -Excluded from analysis set because no vaccine of any kind was received during one year prior to BP onset n=589	**Outcome assessed:** OR of observed versus expected vaccination of BP cases within specified, biologically plausible risk period for association with their later BP development. 'Expected'= odds of [case plus other matched children] having been vaccinated during the calendar dates when the particular case was vaccinated (matching based on age, sex and receipt of the same vaccine during the year prior to case's BP onset). **Results:** Risk period 1: 1-14 days post-vaccination Cases inside risk interval n=2 Cases outside risk interval n=21 OR 1.0 (95% CI 0.2-5.0) Risk period 2: 1-28 d post-vaccination Cases inside risk interval n=3 Cases outside risk interval n=24 OR 0.70 (95% CI 0.2-2.8) Risk period 3: 29-56 days post-vaccination	Level II-2	Poor

Evidence for TIV Safety

STUDY DETAILS					SUMMARY	
Study	Vaccine	Study Design	Participants	Summary of Key Findings Using Text or Data	Level of Evidence	Quality
			-Of n=233 remaining cases, adjudicator classified 26.2% as definite cases and 73.8% as probably cases. All included in analysis model.	Cases inside risk interval n=5 Cases outside risk interval n= 21 OR 0.70 (95% CI 0.3-4.8)		
			TIV recipient cases: n= 43 (7%) *(data related to recipients of other [non-TIV] vaccines omitted here)* -Data analysis includes only n=27 (63%) of TIV recipients No information given regarding potential receipt of more than one vaccine type in the same case	*Reviewer notes that n=16 (34%) TIV recipients are missing from the analysis; presumably these were considered "non-informative" cases (dropped by the model when all matched children were vaccinated within the same time period as the case).* **Summary:** Authors conclude that there is no evidence of increased risk of Bell's Palsy following immunization with TIV. *-Reviewer notes the few exposed cases and large CI intervals and questions the validity of interpreting underpowered non-significant differences as indicative of lack of risk.* *-Reviewer questions the validity of this model to assess TIV risk at all, given its underlying assumption of random timing of vaccine receipt (versus actual seasonal delivery, non-randomly determined to be delivered over a short time period within geographical area and health organization; likely biasing both 'observed' and 'expected' groups towards the null finding of being vaccinated during the same timeframe). The 34% excluded data described above also reflects this, underlining selection bias in the model.*		

Evidence for TIV Safety

STUDY DETAILS					SUMMARY	
Study	Vaccine	Study Design	Participants	Summary of Key Findings Using Text or Data	Level of Evidence	Quality
Schmidt-Ott R, Schwarz T, Haase R, Sander H, Walther U, Fourneau M, Htun-Myint L, Saenger R, Schuster V. Immunogenicity and reactogenicity of a trivalent influenza split vaccine in previously unvaccinated children aged 6-9 and 10-13 years. Vaccine. 2007;26:32-40.	TIV Influsplit/Fluarix, GSK 0.5 ml IM, single dose for 10-13-year-olds, two doses, 28 days apart for 6-9-year-olds	Prospective, open phase IV clinical trial 2005-2006 influenza season Conducted in 18 centres in Germany.	Children aged 6-13 years, healthy or with underlying chronic disease. All subjects influenza vaccine-naïve and without prior laboratory-confirmed influenza disease. Safety cohort: n (6-9 years)=110 n (10-13 years)=114	**Outcomes assessed**: Incidence, type, severity of local and general symptoms, and SAEs. Solicited: three days; Unsolicited: 30 days; SAEs: duration of study **Results** - Pain at the injection site was the most commonly reported symptom in both groups. - Most solicited local symptoms were mild in intensity in both groups. - Headache was the most commonly reported solicited general adverse event in both groups. - Incidence of solicited and unsolicited local or general symptoms after second dose slightly, but not significantly, higher than after first dose. - Three nonfatal SAEs all resolved, all determined unrelated to vaccine **Summary:** Fluarix (2005/2006 formulation) appeared well tolerated and safe in 6-13-year-old children, in this multicentre post-marketing trial in Germany.	Level II-2	Fair
Skowronski DM, De Serres G, Crowcroft, N et al. Association betweeen the 2008-09 seasonal influenza vaccine and pandemic H1N1 illness during Spring-Summer	TIV (primarily Fluviral from GSK, also including Vaxigrip) Focus primarily on 2008-2009 vaccination but	Four separate observational studies, all conducted Spring-Summer 2009 (months after seasonal influenza outbreak period) in Canada.	Canadians (all ages), including those with underlying chronic conditions (~10%) N=1226 lab-confirmed pH1N1 cases and 1505 controls over all four studies	**Outcomes assessed**: Effect of prior TIV vaccination on risk for pdmH1N1 illness in Spring 2009. Illness confirmed by RT-PCR (British Columbia, Quebec, Ontario) or Luminex RVP assay (Alberta). Outcome measure: OR for medically-attended, lab confirmed pH1N1 in those who received TIV versus those who did not. **Results**: *(Note: studies present various adjusted ORs for different confounders; only one most relevant to subjects of the current review reported here. None of the studies*	Level II-2	Fair

Evidence for TIV Safety

STUDY DETAILS					SUMMARY	
Study	**Vaccine**	**Study Design**	**Participants**	**Summary of Key Findings Using Text or Data**	**Level of Evidence**	**Quality**
2009: four observational studies from Canada. PLoS Med. 2010; 7(4) e1000258: 1-15.	some sub-analyses regarding TIV receipt from 1-5 years previously as well Vaccination status was self-reported	1) Test-negative case-control (from sentinel network across Quebec, Ontario, British Columbia, and Alberta). 2) Population case-control (in Quebec; community cases, hospitalized cases, random community controls included). 3) Test-negative case-control (in Ontario; community cases, hospitalized cases, test-negative ILI presenter as control). 4) Prospective cohort, household transmission study (Quebec City).	**Children 5-18 years old**: *(% indicates on a denominator of all-aged participants in the same category)* *1) Sentinel study* 5-8 years: n unstated, grouped together with young children from 1-year-old. 9-19 years: Cases n=59 (41%) Controls n=66 (12%) Vaccinees: only 13 cases (22%) and nine controls (6%) had been vaccinated *2) Quebec case-control study* 5-19 years: number vaccinated not stated for this age group Community cases: n=158(41%) Hospitalized cases: n=73 (27%):	*presented an OR stratified to children's age grouping, specifically)* *1) Sentinel study* OR= 2.23 (95% CI 1.31-3.79) Calculated in subgroup <50 years old, fully adjusted for age, chronic conditions (yes/no), province, interval since ILI onset (≤4 d/>4d) *Note that study population was dominated by adults, with 9-19 year/olds representing only 20% of the total study population or 25% of the population <50 years, and with few vaccinated subjects in this age group; caution for interpreting results in relation to 5-18-year-olds per se.* *2) Quebec case-control study* Community cases OR= 2.48 (1.80-3.42) Hospitalized cases OR-2.16 (1.85-3.30) Fully adjusted for age, chronic conditions, sex, HCW status *3) Ontario test-negative case-control study* Community cases OR= 1.95 (1.27-2.99)		

Evidence for TIV Safety

STUDY DETAILS					SUMMARY	
Study	Vaccine	Study Design	Participants	Summary of Key Findings Using Text or Data	Level of Evidence	Quality
			Community controls: n=201 (33%)	Hospitalized cases OR=1.19 (0.61-2.32)		
			3) Ontario test-negative.case-control study	Restricted to testing ≤ 4days after ILI onset OR=2.37 (1.22-4.60)		
			5-19 years: number vaccinated not stated	Fully adjusted for age, chronic conditions, sex, HCW status		
			Community cases: n=134(54%)			
			Hospitalized cases: n=57 (42%)	4) Household transmission study		
			Test-negative controls n=72 (24%)	No increased risk found for children (contrary to adult results) but n=8 is too few on which to base conclusions.		
			4) Household transmission study			
			<18 years old			
			Only n=8 vaccinees included	**Summary:** Four observational studies each confirmed an association between prior TIV receipt in Canada and an increased risk of medically attended pandemic H1N1 illness. Bias or confounding cannot be ruled out.		
Tregnaghi MW, Stamboulian D, Carina Vanadia P, et al. Immunogenicity, safety, and tolerability of two trivalent subunit inactivated influenza vaccines: A phase III,	TIV Comparison of two Sanofi Pasteur vaccines Study vaccine: Agrippal (appears comparable to Canadian-	Phase III, observer-blind, randomized controlled multicentre trial Carried out April-December 2007. Authors note that the onset of influenza season overlapped with enrolment and	N=1893 healthy 3-64-year-olds, including 3-8-year-olds: n=601 9-17 year olds: n=600 Randomized 2:1 for study comparator vaccine All 3-8-year-olds were vaccine naïve,	**Outcomes assessed:** Safety: solicited local and systemic reactions (seven days) and unsolicited (22 days for 9-17-year-olds, 50 days for 3-8-year-olds) AEs. Six month follow-up call for SAEs and other AEs. **Results:** AEs The majority of AEs were mild to moderate and resolved within days.	Level I	Fair

Evidence for TIV Safety

STUDY DETAILS					SUMMARY	
Study	Vaccine	Study Design	Participants	Summary of Key Findings Using Text or Data	Level of Evidence	Quality
observer-blind, randomized, controlled multicenter study. Viral Immunol. 2012;25:216-225.	licensed Agriflu) Comparator vaccine: Fluvirin (appears comparable to Canadian-licensed Fluzone) One dose (9-17 years) or two doses four weeks apart for 3-8-year-olds, 15 µg of each strain per dose	may have caused some confounding Argentina NCT 00464672	aged 5.5±1.7 years and 5.4±1.7 years (mean± SD of each vaccine group) 9-17-year-olds 12.8±2.6 and 12.7±2.6 (mean age± SD for each vaccine group). Prior vaccine status, gender, race, height, weight, evenly distributed between groups	Percentage of subjects reporting solicited AE (study//comparator vaccine): Local, 9-17 years: 34%//31% Local, 3-8 years, dose 1:23%//28% Local, 3-8 years, dose 2:17%//20% Systemic, 9-17 years: 23%//25% Systemic, 3-8 years, dose 1:16%//19% Systemic, 3-8 years, dose 2:10%//11% Most common local reaction: pain at injection site (17-20% in 3-8-year-olds, 29% in 9-17-year-olds) Most frequent systemic reaction was headache: (7-9% in 3-8-year-olds, 11-13% in 9-17-year-olds) No reports of severe fever. Unsolicited, possibly related AEs were uncommon (1% in 9-17-year-olds, <1% in 3-8-year-olds), were mild to moderate, and all resolved before end of study. Six month follow-up call, re: AEs: 1% in 9-17-year-olds, 1-2% in 3-8-year -olds		

Evidence for TIV Safety

STUDY DETAILS					SUMMARY	
Study	Vaccine	Study Design	Participants	Summary of Key Findings Using Text or Data	Level of Evidence	Quality
				SAEs over entire study - No deaths or AEs that led to study withdrawal - Four SAEs in 9-17-year-olds with study vaccine (not described), all deemed unrelated to vaccination by investigators - Nine SAEs in 3-8-year-olds (6 study/3 comparator vaccine; not described), all deemed unrelated to vaccination by investigators **Summary:** Both vaccines appeared safe and well tolerated. However, only the immunogenicity portion of the study (not safety) contributed to power design; hence not clear if study powered to detect rare adverse events in specific age groups.		

Table 6. Safety of LAIV

Evidence for LAIV Safety						
STUDY DETAILS					SUMMARY	
Study	Vaccine	Study Design	Participants	Summary of Key Findings Using Text or Data	Level of Evidence	Quality
Bergen R, Black S, Shinefield H, et al. Safety of cold-adapted live attenuated influenza vaccine in a large cohort of children and adolescents. Pediatr Infect Dis J. 2004;23(2):138-44	LAIV Frozen formulation ("CAIV-T" in this study) 0.25mL per nostril. $(10^7 TCID_{50}$ per strain) One or two doses, depending on age (second dose given 28 to 42 days after first dose).	Randomized, double-blind, placebo controlled AV019- prelicensure study 2000 Excluded those who received TIV in 2000 or any live virus within one month of study or inactivated vaccine within two weeks.	Healthy children aged 12 months to 17 years N=9,689 Children aged 1-8 years n_{CAIV-T}=3,769 $n_{placebo}$=1,868 (5-8-year-old subcategory not described) Children aged 9-17 years n_{CAIV-T}=2,704 $n_{placebo}$=1,348	**Outcomes Assessed:** MAEs and SAEs followed for 42 days post vaccination. Pre-specified diagnostic categories: acute respiratory tract events, systemic bacterial infections, acute gastrointestinal tract events, rare events. AEs collected at clinics, EDs, and hospitals. **Results:** *(excluding those specific to children younger than 5 years)* Assessing all age groups and all settings together, none of the four prespecified diagnostic categories was associated with vaccine. Healthcare utilization rates similar between groups. Rate of SAE was 0.2% and equally distributed between vaccine and placebo recipients. No SAE deemed related to vaccine Statistical analyses included >1500 different comparisons without correction for multiple comparisons. Statistically significant MAE for 9-17-year-old group were only noted when analysis for separate medical settings done:	Level I	Good

Evidence for LAIV Safety

STUDY DETAILS					SUMMARY	
Study	Vaccine	Study Design	Participants	Summary of Key Findings Using Text or Data	Level of Evidence	Quality

				Rate/1000 person-month (LAIV/Placebo)
				
				in ED setting only
				
				  Acute respiratory tract events: 2.66/0
				
				  Acute gastrointestinal tract events: 2.66/0
				
				  Abdominal pain: 1.86/0
				
				In clinic setting only
				
				  Adenitis/adenopathy: 2.13/0
				
				  UTI: 3.98/0.53		

Block SL, Yogev R, Hayden FG, et al. Shedding and immunogenicity of live attenuated influenza vaccine virus in subjects 5-49 years of age. Vaccine. 2008;26(38):494 0-6	LAIV FluMist Frozen formulation recommended for previous season (2003/2004) administered out of influenza season 0.25mL per nostril (10^7	Phase IV, open-label clinical trial, multicentre 2004/2005 Eleven sites , USA	N=344 healthy children and adults Three age cohorts (5-8, 9-17, 18-49 years) n 5-8=102 n9-17=126 n18-49=115 (adult results omitted here) Mean years age (SD)	**Outcomes assessed**: Shedding of live vaccine virus in nasal swab samples, reactogenicity and AEs up to eight days post-vaccination. SAEs and SNMCs (significant new medical conditions) followed up six months post-vaccination. **Results:** *Shedding:* 44% of 5-8-year-olds shed live vaccine virus 27% of 9-17-year-olds shed live vaccine virus - Shedding occurred day 1-11 and peaked day 2 post-vaccine, both groups. - Mean titre of shed virus over all age groups was <3 $\log_{10}$	Level II-2	Fair

Evidence for LAIV Safety

STUDY DETAILS					SUMMARY	
Study	Vaccine	Study Design	Participants	Summary of Key Findings Using Text or Data	Level of Evidence	Quality
	$TCID_{50}$) Single dose		5-8 year cohort :6.7 (1.1) 9-17 year cohort: 12.8 (2.6)	$TCID_{50}$/ml with highest titre 4.95 $\log_{10}$ $TCID_{50}$/ml in 5-8-year-olds, and lower titres as age increased. - Virus titre peaked day 2-3 and became too low for detection at six days for 9-17-year-olds and 10 days for 5-8-year-olds. - Incidence of shedding particular strains related to seronegativity, with higher odds for shedding in seronegative subjects. *Safety*: In general LAIV was safe and well-tolerated. Event rates for 5-8, 9-17-year-olds, respectively: -REs days 1-10: 58.8% , 59.8% Runny nose/congestion most common, followed by headache. Low grade fever more common in 5-8-year-olds than older. -AEs, 0- 28 days: upper abdominal pain (10.8%, 3.9%) epistaxis (5.9%,3.1%) In seven subjects these were judged potentially related to vaccine. - One SAE occurring 61 days post vaccine, judged unrelated.		

Evidence for LAIV Safety

STUDY DETAILS					SUMMARY	
Study	Vaccine	Study Design	Participants	Summary of Key Findings Using Text or Data	Level of Evidence	Quality
				- Nine SNMCs >four months post vaccine, judged unrelated.		
Block SL, Reisinger KS, Hultquist M, et al. Comparative immunogenicities of frozen and refrigerated formulations of live attenuated influenza vaccine in healthy subjects del. Antimicrobial Agents Chemother. 2007;51:4001-4008.	LAIV, frozen version versus refrigerated formulation *(termed 'CAIV-T' in this paper, but termed LAIV in many other sources)*, both supplied by MedImmune. Two doses, 46-60 days apart (5-8 years) or one dose (9 years+). 0.25 ml/nostril (frozen) or .0.1 ml/ nostril (refrigerated). Each dose contained ~ 10^7 FFU of each strain.	Prospective, phase III, randomized, double-blind, multicenter trial. Study conducted off season (between 2003/2004 and 2004/2005 influenza season) conducted at 26 sites in the US	Healthy subjects 5-49 years. n 5-8 years=376 n 9-49 year=566 ITT pop=942 Results evaluated for 88% of 5-8-year-old enrollees and 96% of 9-49-year-olds (total N=878): 5-8 CAIV-T n=164 LAIV n=168 9-49 CAIV-T n=275 LAIV n=271 (Descriptive stats of 9-49 group suggest >25% but <50% of the group was aged between 9and 18 years) NB: n=? subjects in ? study groups likely received a second (2004/2005) vaccine of undescribed type (TIV/LAIV) during study since authors offered it to all subjects	**Outcomes Assessed:** Reactogenicity (predefined events, RE) and adverse events (AE), both followed for 28 days post-vaccination. SAEs and SNMCs (significant new medical conditions) monitored through completion of study (~ 6 months) **Results:** *REs* -Runny nose/congestion was the most frequent RE in each group, affecting 29.3-50.2% of subjects per group, followed by headache in 9-49-year-olds (34.1-43.8%) or cough in 5-8-year-olds (22.2-27.4%). Overall, for 616 and 636 doses of CAIV-T or LAIV, respectively, Table 4 shows 433 (70.3%) versus 374 (58.8%) dose-recipients reporting at least one RE. *(NB – as per reviewer's calculations; authors do not report totals or the 11.5% higher event rate of the refrigerated formulation CAIV-T or statistically analyze it, stating simply that overall incidence was "slightly higher"[in results section], or that it was "equivalent" [in discussion].)* - Each age group showed higher percentage of individuals reporting any RE with refrigerated formulation CAIV-T than frozen formulation LAIV, although on a per-group basis significance (p <0.05) was only reached in 5-8-year-olds receiving second dose:	Level 1	Fair But a suggestion of increased rate of predefined events using the formulation now approved in Canada is not clearly represented or statistically analyzed and appears downplayed, and external validity of data for 9-18-year-olds is marred by grouping with adults

Evidence for LAIV Safety

STUDY DETAILS					SUMMARY	
Study	Vaccine	Study Design	Participants	Summary of Key Findings Using Text or Data	Level of Evidence	Quality
			subsequent to study vaccines (study vaccine administration continued until November 2004), and prior to onset of 2004/2005 influenza season. Timing, uptake, etc., not described or accounted for in analysis. A potential confounding factor; however article does not discuss or clarify the point.	5-8-year-olds, first dose: 69.2 versus 60.3% 5-8-year-olds, second dose: 57.1 versus 43.7% 9-49-year-olds: 73.9 versus 66.7%. -Several particular REs were statistically significantly higher with CAIV-T than LAIV (including fever, runny nose/congestion, sore throat, muscle aches, and chills in second dose 5-8-year-olds, and headache in 9-49-year-olds); none were significantly higher with LAIV than CAIV-T. *Reviewer notes that of 14 between-vaccine comparisons per group, the frequency of a higher point estimate for RE incidence in CAIV-T recipients than LAIV was 14/14 and 13/14 for second dose-5-8-year-olds and 9-49-year-olds, respectively. Only 5-8-year-olds receiving a first dose appeared randomly split between the vaccine formulations, with 7/14.* - Notwithstanding Table 4 data and above observations, authors summarize reactogenicity findings as similar and within 5% between vaccine types. *AEs*- other than REs were infrequent (all <5%) and comparable between treatment groups. *SAEs* - Two events (only one in a child) - both judged unrelated to vaccine.		

Evidence for LAIV Safety

STUDY DETAILS					SUMMARY	
Study	Vaccine	Study Design	Participants	Summary of Key Findings Using Text or Data	Level of Evidence	Quality
				SNMCs - 4 in 5-8 year group (3 with CAIV-T, 1 with LAIV) - 5 in 9-49 year group (in four subjects , all CAIV-T)		
King JC, Jr., Stoddard JJ, Gaglani MJ, et al. Effectiveness of school-based influenza vaccinees. NEJM. 2006;355:2523-2532.	LAIV: FluMist (MedImmune), 2004/2005 formulation Main circulating virus) was drifted from vaccine strains One dose, or for children <9 years not previously vaccinated: second dose six to 10 weeks after first dose NCT00192218	Multicentre non-randomized controlled prospective cohort trial with cluster design. 2004/2005 influenza season Safety outcomes only pertained to vaccinees Data source - Parental interview at time of vaccination (for previous seven days) and seven days post-vaccination; - Parental report for SAEs up to 42 days Four US states	**Vaccine recipients**: Consenting, healthy children 5-14 years old in intervention schools. LAIV coverage in study: 47% of n=5840 students (n=2745 for safety analysis). Average age = 7.9 years (95% two-dose coverage achieved where appropriate)	**Outcomes assessed:** Safety- pre-versus post-vaccine reports. SAEs, hospitalization post-vaccination. **Results:** - Mild increase in influenza-like symptoms in vaccinees post versus pre-vaccination described. -No hospitalizations in vaccinees (reported up to seven days post-vaccination) - Four SAEs (reported up to 42 days post-vaccination); three considered not or probably not related to vaccine, one possibly related (wheezing, bronchospasm), all resolved completely without hospitalization.	Level II-1	Fair

Evidence for LAIV Safety

STUDY DETAILS					SUMMARY	
Study	Vaccine	Study Design	Participants	Summary of Key Findings Using Text or Data	Level of Evidence	Quality
Neuzil KM, Dupont WD, Wright PF, et al. Efficacy of inactivated and cold-adapted vaccines against influenza A infection, 1985 to 1990: the pediatric experience. Pediatr Infect Dis J 2001 Aug;20(8):733-740.	TIV/LAIV Vaccines of 1986/1987-1989/1990 (Commercial TIV; lab-produced pre-licensure LAIV). One dose only	Randomized controlled trial, double-blind Original study (Edwards, 1994) covered five influenza seasons (1985-1990) and included adults.	Children 1- <16 years at time of vaccination (*data specific to children aged 1 to<6 excluded here*) Subjects immunized each fall for up to five years, remaining as originally grouped $N_{doses\ over\ 5\ years\ of\ either\ laiv\ or\ tiv\ or\ control}$ = 1,809 (1/year/participant)	**Outcomes assessed:** Reactogenicity days 0-4 post-vaccination: redness, induration, fever, cough, coryza, sore throat, SAEs. **Results:** -No serious reactions - Overall reaction rate did not vary appreciably between initial and repeat vaccinations, across study years, or across age subcategories	Level 1	Fair
	LAIV- bivalent A/H1N1 and A/H3N2 intranasal drops, 1.0 ml (0.5 ml/strain,10^5 - $10^{7.6}$ plaque-forming U/ml), + inactivated influenza B , IM. TIV 0.5 ml IM, (15µg HA each strain) + placebo intranasal Control:	This paper is reanalysis of just pediatric portion, and also excludes year 1 because no influenza A circulated that year. Safety results are also excluded for that year US (Nashville, Tennessee)	N children=791 n 6-10 years: 302 n 11-15 years: 218 Not all children participated all years. Average 25% dropout rate/year (NSD between study arm or age group) replaced by annual recruitment. Vaccination groups: Group n(6-10year) n(11-15year)	-11-15-year-olds had higher frequency of sore throat after LAIV (12.9%; 95% CI 8.8-18%) than after other vaccines and a higher frequency of arm induration after TIV (14.2%; 9.6-20%) than after other vaccines. -Coryza was the most frequently reported reaction in both 6-10-year-olds (17.0%; 13-22%) and 11-15-year-olds (15.8%; 11-22%), but NSD between vaccine types.		

Evidence for LAIV Safety

STUDY DETAILS					SUMMARY	
Study	Vaccine	Study Design	Participants	Summary of Key Findings Using Text or Data	Level of Evidence	Quality
	inactivated monovalent influenza B, IM + placebo intranasal		Control 102 77 LAIV 99 80 TIV 106 62 LAIV doses over four years included in analysis: 6-10 years n=247 11-15 years n=209			
Baxter R, Toback SL, Sifakis F,. A post-marketing evaluation of the safety of Ann Arbor strain live attenuated influenza vaccine in children 5 through 17 years of age. *Vaccine.* 2012;30:2989-2998.	LAIV Vaccines of 2003/2004-2007/2008 seasons. One or two doses as indicated by age recommendations	Prospective observational post-marketing study Compares rates of adverse events to those seen in three non-randomized control groups: 1)within-cohort (self-controlled) 2) unvaccinated controls 3) TIV-vaccinated controls	Kaiser Permanente healthcare members who were children aged 5-17 years, indicated for LAIV receipt (healthy) and who received LAIV as part of routine care from October 2003 to March 2008. N=131,845 children, 5-17 years old n=43,702 LAIV recipients (receiving 53,369 doses) Matched with similar numbers of healthy TIV- vaccinated and unvaccinated children Subjects with high-risk underlying	**Outcomes assessed:** Safety: All MAEs and SAEs from outpatient clinics, EDs and hospital admissions records (respiratory, GI, asthma/wheezing systemic bacterial and rare diagnoses related to wt influenza). Events followed 42 days, save asthma/wheezing, which was followed 180 days. SAEs followed 42 days post-vaccination (or longer if considered potentially related to LAIV). All hospitalizations and deaths followed through six months post-vaccination. **Results**: MAEs: In 9496 MAE incidence rate comparisons LAIV recipients had 204 significantly higher and 168 significantly lower, versus controls. 76% of those increased were in relation to unvaccinated controls, whereas 75% of those that decreased were in relation to TIV-vaccinated controls. After post-hoc adjustment for multiple comparisons 48 events remained statistically significantly different. No	Level II-2	Fair

Evidence for LAIV Safety

STUDY DETAILS					SUMMARY	
Study	Vaccine	Study Design	Participants	Summary of Key Findings Using Text or Data	Level of Evidence	Quality
		Data source- Kaiser Permanente healthcare group administrative data from: Colorado, Hawaii and California, U.S. (covering approximately 4 M population)	medical conditions were excluded. Authors note evidence of relevant underlying differences between comparison groups (health care use, health status, selection bias regarding recommended vaccine)	pattern of MAE rate differences suggested a safety signal with LAIV. No anaphylaxis within three days post-vaccination No increase in asthma/wheezing events associated with LAIV (events were at lower rate in LAIV recipients than controls). Rates of SAEs were similar in LAIV and control groups. SAE's were uncommon; only two were considered possibly related to LAIV: Bell's Palsy and nonspecific paroxysmal spell.		
Piedra PA, Gaglani MJ, Riggs M, et al. Live attenuated influenza vaccine, trivalent, is safe in healthy children 18 months to 4 years, 5 to 9 years, and 10 to 18 years of age in a community-based, non-randomized, open-label trial. Pediatrics. 2005;116(3):e397-407.	LAIV Aviron/(MedImmune Frozen formulation Prelicensure vaccines over seasons 1998/1999 to 01/02. 0.25mL per nostril ($10^{7.6-}$TCID$_{50}$ per	Prospective, multi-year, open label, non- randomized trial Four years (1998 to 2002) Data sources: SWHP health plan database (for MAARI and asthma events) ; hospital/clinic records and personal follow-up (for SAEs)	Healthy children aged 1.5-18 years, including ~10% with a history of intermittent wheezing or mild asthma Study included N=18,780 doses to 11,096 children, 18 months-4 years (4529 doses) 5-9 years (7036 doses) 10-18 years (7215 doses) *SAE data includes >95% of above; however for all other events studied, authors omitted >50% of data from analysis, non-randomly. Tabled data suggest that ~65% of subjects*	**Outcomes Assessed:** SAEs followed for six week post-vaccination (all subjects, any event regardless of causality). Vaccine-related SAEs followed for duration of study. AEs- no AEs other than respiratory followed. Health care use for asthma events and MAARI* followed. Six weeks post-vaccination (reported as two separate portions, not over entire follow-up period). *(*Authors defined risk for MAARI-attributed healthcare use as a safety endpoint, estimating RR of post- versus pre-vaccination MAARI while applying nominal-based rate adjustments intended to address confounding of MAARI and asthma rates by viral illness outbreaks in the community. Potential confounding related to VE not addressed.)* **Results:**	Level II-2	Fair SAE analysis good with high numbers of individuals and multiple vaccine lots. Other results may be subject to bias and show wide confidence intervals.

Evidence for LAIV Safety

STUDY DETAILS					SUMMARY	
Study	Vaccine	Study Design	Participants	Summary of Key Findings Using Text or Data	Level of Evidence	Quality

	strain)
	
	A single dose, annually, regardless of age or previous vaccination.
		Temple-Belton, Texas, USA	*receiving ~54% of doses were omitted (all non-members of SWHP health insurance plan).*
			
			Data set used for AE analyses appears to be:
			
			  1.5-4 years n=1478 (2115 doses)
			
			  5-9 years n=1789 (3171 doses)
			
			  10-18 years n=1735 (3385 doses)
			
			Ns or proportions of this subset of subjects that had mild asthma history not described
			
			N=3669, 1.5-18 years old participated in>1 year; included in multiyear safety analysis
				SAEs
				
				>95% follow-up achieved for 11,096 children for SAEs
				
				n=42 SAEs over four year study; none fatal and none deemed related to vaccine
				
				Incidence of LAIV-related SAE quantified as <1/5900 doses
				
				MAARI healthcare use
				
				-No significant increased risk, either during 0-14 or 15-42 day post-vaccination periods (versus rate during the period from study start to vaccination) for any age group in any given year.
				
				(NB selection bias for elevated pre-vaccination rate suggested, as authors state MAARI presentation often triggered study enrollment, with the selecting event then assigned to pre-vaccination reference period)
				
				- in 1.5-18-year-olds returning multiple years, no significant increased RR, 0-14 days after vaccination.
				
				Asthma event healthcare use
				
				- Event number or rates not reported.
				
				-No statistically significant increases associated with repeated years of vaccination or with ages 5-9-years-old		

Evidence for LAIV Safety

STUDY DETAILS					SUMMARY	
Study	Vaccine	Study Design	Participants	Summary of Key Findings Using Text or Data	Level of Evidence	Quality
				or 10-18-years-old in any given year *(NB numbers not tabulated; figure shows wide CIs; no data presented respecting all study years together)* -RRs of a healthcare use event 0-14 day post vaccine versus pre-vaccination period reported only for all subjects together (i.e., 1.5-18-year-old health plan members] RR (95% CI) 1998/1999: 0.49 (0.19-1.30) 1999/2000: 1.25 (0.69-2.27) 2000/2001: 0.48 (0.22-1.07) 2001/2002:1.31 (0.64-2.67)		

Table 7. Levels of evidence based on research design

I	Evidence from randomized controlled trial(s).
II-1	Evidence from controlled trial(s) without randomization.
II-2	Evidence from cohort or case-control analytic studies, preferably from more than one centre or research group using clinical outcome measures of vaccine efficacy.
II-3	Evidence obtained from multiple time series with or without the intervention. Dramatic results in uncontrolled experiments (such as the results of the introduction of penicillin treatment in the 1940s) could also be regarded as this type of evidence.
III	Opinions of respected authorities, based on clinical experience, descriptive studies and case reports, or reports of expert committees.

Table 8. Quality (internal validity) rating of evidence

Good	A study (including meta-analyses or systematic reviews) that meets all design- specific criteria* well.
Fair	A study (including meta-analyses or systematic reviews) that does not meet (or it is not clear that it meets) at least one design-specific criterion* but has no known "fatal flaw".
Poor	A study (including meta-analyses or systematic reviews) that has at least one design-specific* "fatal flaw", or an accumulation of lesser flaws to the extent that the results of the study are not deemed able to inform recommendations.

* General design specific criteria are outlined in Harris RP, Helfand M, Woolf SH, et al. Current methods of the US Preventive Services Task Force: a review of the process. Am J Prev Med 2001;20:21-35.

VI. ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

V. REFERENCES

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APPENDIX A: LITERATURE SEARCH TERMS

Database: Ovid Medline and Medline In-Process and Other Non-indexed Citations
Execution: Sept. 10, 2012

1. exp Influenza Vaccines/
2. exp Influenza/
3. exp Vaccines/
4. 2 and 3
5. ([influenza or flu] adj [vaccin$ or immuni$ or innoculat$]).mp. (mp=title, abstract, original title, name of substance word, subject heading word, protocol supplementary concept, rare disease supplementary concept, unique identifier)
6. 1 or 4 or 5
7. exp Child/
8. (child or children or pediatric or paediatric).mp. [mp=title, abstract, original title, name of substance word, subject heading word, protocol supplementary concept, rare disease supplementary concept, unique identifier]
9. 7 or 8
10. age groups/ or *adolescent/ or *child/
11. 9 or 10
12. 6 and 11
13. limit 6 to ("preschool child [2 to 5 years]" or "child [6 to 12 years]" or "adolescent [13 to 18 years]")
14. 12 or 13
15. antibodies, viral/ or Safety/ or exp Drug Toxicity/ or (effective* or efficac* or ([adverse or negative or side] adj2 [event* or reaction* or effect*]) or reactogenicity or immunolog* or immunogenic or contraindicat* or toleran* or laboratory-confirmed or culture-confirmed or MAARI or hospitalization or hospitalisation).tw.
16. (safe* or ILI or influenza-like or serol* or GMT or TIV or LAIV or H1N1 or pandemic or seasonal or absenteeism or ((absent* or miss*) adj2 (work* or job* or school* or class*)) or antibiotic or inpatient* or outpatient*).tw.
17. ([medical or doctor* or hospital* or clinic] adj2 visit*).tw.
18. 15 or 16 or 17
19. 14 and 18
20. (Infants or toddlers).ti.
21. children.ti.
22. 20 not 21
23. 19 and 22
24. 19 not 23
25. limit 24 to (year="2001 -Current" and (english or french))
26. limit 25 to "review articles"
27. limit 26 to year="2009 -Current"
28. 25 not 26
29. remove duplicates from 28

Database: ISI Web of Science
Executed: Sept 10, 2012
(note: entire search was run using lemmatization 'on' setting and limiting the years to '2001-current' and the languages to 'English and French')

#15   #13 NOT #14
#14   #11 NOT #8
Refined by: [excluding] Web of Science Categories=(ECONOMICS OR GERONTOLOGY OR MATHEMATICAL COMPUTATIONAL BIOLOGY OR PSYCHIATRY OR PSYCHOLOGY OR REHABILITATION OR SOCIAL SCIENCES MATHEMATICAL METHODS OR SURGERY OR BIOPHYSICS OR VETERINARY SCIENCES OR AGRICULTURE MULTIDISCIPLINARY OR ENVIRONMENTAL SCIENCES OR ANESTHESIOLOGY OR MEDICAL INFORMATICS OR BEHAVIORAL SCIENCES OR NUTRITION DIETETICS OR EDUCATION EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH OR ONCOLOGY OR EDUCATION SCIENTIFIC DISCIPLINES OR COMPUTER SCIENCE INTERDISCIPLINARY APPLICATIONS OR ETHICS OR GERIATRICS GERONTOLOGY OR EVOLUTIONARY BIOLOGY OR MATHEMATICS INTERDISCIPLINARY APPLICATIONS OR FOOD SCIENCE TECHNOLOGY OR TRANSPLANTATION OR LAW OR MEDICAL ETHICS OR OBSTETRICS GYNECOLOGY OR MEDICINE LEGAL OR ORTHOPEDICS OR PSYCHOLOGY DEVELOPMENTAL OR PARASITOLOGY OR NURSING OR PSYCHOLOGY MULTIDISCIPLINARY OR REPRODUCTIVE BIOLOGY OR SPORT SCIENCES OR GENETICS HEREDITY OR WOMEN S STUDIES) AND Document Types=(EDITORIAL MATERIAL OR NEWS ITEM OR BOOK CHAPTER OR REVIEW OR LETTER OR MEETING ABSTRACT)
#13   #11 NOT #8
Refined by: [excluding] Web of Science Categories=(ECONOMICS OR GERONTOLOGY OR MATHEMATICAL COMPUTATIONAL BIOLOGY OR PSYCHIATRY OR PSYCHOLOGY OR REHABILITATION OR SOCIAL SCIENCES MATHEMATICAL METHODS OR SURGERY OR BIOPHYSICS OR VETERINARY SCIENCES OR AGRICULTURE MULTIDISCIPLINARY OR ENVIRONMENTAL SCIENCES OR ANESTHESIOLOGY OR MEDICAL INFORMATICS OR BEHAVIORAL SCIENCES OR NUTRITION DIETETICS OR EDUCATION EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH OR ONCOLOGY OR EDUCATION SCIENTIFIC DISCIPLINES OR COMPUTER SCIENCE INTERDISCIPLINARY APPLICATIONS OR ETHICS OR GERIATRICS GERONTOLOGY OR EVOLUTIONARY BIOLOGY OR MATHEMATICS INTERDISCIPLINARY APPLICATIONS OR FOOD SCIENCE TECHNOLOGY OR TRANSPLANTATION OR LAW OR MEDICAL ETHICS OR OBSTETRICS GYNECOLOGY OR MEDICINE LEGAL OR ORTHOPEDICS OR PSYCHOLOGY DEVELOPMENTAL OR PARASITOLOGY OR NURSING OR PSYCHOLOGY MULTIDISCIPLINARY OR REPRODUCTIVE BIOLOGY OR SPORT SCIENCES OR GENETICS HEREDITY OR WOMEN S STUDIES)
#12   #11 NOT #8
#11   #10 AND #3
#10   #9 or #4
#9   TS=(((H1N1 or absenteeism or antibiotic use or drug toxicity or antibodies or immunity or adverse reaction* or ((medical or doctor* or hospital* or clinic) NEAR visit) or inpatient* or outpatient* or side effect or negative effect or tolerance))) AND Language=(English OR French)
#8   (#7 NOT #2) AND Language=(English OR French)
#7   (TI=(infant or toddler or preschool* or daycare)) AND Language=(English OR French)
#6   (#5 NOT #2) AND Language=(English OR French)
#5   (TS=(infants or toddlers or preschoolers or daycare)) AND Language=(English OR French)
#4   (TS=((safe* or effective* or efficacy or adverse event* or reactogenicity or immunolog* or contraindicat* or ("laboratory-confirmed" NEAR influenza) or ("culture-confirmed" NEAR

influenza) or ILI or "influenza-like" or MAARI or hospitali$ation or serol* or GMT or TIV or LAIV or pandemic or seasonal))) AND Language=(English OR French)

#3   #2 AND #1

#2   (TS=[children or adolescents]) AND Language=(English OR French)

#1   (TS=Influenza vaccines) AND Language=(English OR French)

Note that set 14 separated reviews (among other) document types out of set 15 but nonetheless remained accessible for retrieving and consulting review bibliographies.

Database: EMBASE
Execution: Sept. 11, 2012

1. exp *influenza vaccine/
2. exp *influenza vaccination/
3. 1 or 2
4. child/ or adolescent/ or preschool child/ or school child/
5. (child or children or pediatric or paediatric).mp.
6. 4 or 5
7. 3 and 6
8. limit 3 to (child or preschool child <1 to 6 years> or school child <7 to 12 years> or adolescent <13 to 17 years>)
9. 7 or 8
10. exp safety/ or immunogenicity/ or exp adverse drug reaction/ or drug efficacy/ or comparative effectiveness/ or absenteeism/
11. (effective* or efficacy or adverse event* or reactogenicity or immunolog* or contraindicat* or laboratory-confirmed or culture-confirmed or MAARI or safe* or ILI or influenza-like or serol* or GMT or LAIV or TIV or H1N1 or pandemic or seasonal).tw.
12. (toleran* or antibiotic* or inpatient* or outpatient* or hospitali*ation or ([medical or doctor* or hospital* or clinic) adj2 visit*]).tw.
13. 10 or 11 or 12
14. 9 and 13
15. limit 14 to ([english or french] and year="2001 - 2012")
16. limit 15 to exclude medline journals
17. limit 16 to (article or conference paper or journal or conference proceeding or report)

Note- Medline journals were excluded to de-duplicate returns from the two databases

APPENDIX B: GUIDELINES FOR VACCINE-TYPE INCLUSION OR EXCLUSION

Here are the conditions for inclusion and exclusion with regards to vaccine types/brands:
To include:

1. Studies using vaccines currently authorised in Canada
This information can be found in Table 2 of the 2012/2013 seasonal influenza statement. Please note the authorised age of use for each of these vaccines.

2. Vaccines equivalent to those available in Canada
Manufacturers sell some of the Canadian-authorised vaccines under a different name in other countries. In our experience, there have not been many articles like this, and it is not difficult to determine whether there is an equivalent in Canada.

3. Egg-based split or subunit intramuscular TIV, or LAIV
If the manufacturer or vaccine brand are not explicitly identified, studies using these types of vaccines should be included, but take note of the country the study is being conducted in.

To exclude:

1. Non-seasonal influenza vaccines.

2. Vaccines manufactured by companies that do not offer their product in Canada*.

3. Quadrivalent, intradermal, adjuvanted, virosomal, whole vaccines
This is not an exhaustive list, but should cover most of the vaccine studies.

4. Vaccines of any production method other than egg-based.

*exception: MedImmune was formerly Aviron which was part of Wyeth. Medimmune has since been acquired by AstraZeneca who distributes LAIV in Canada, which is why articles with vaccines from MedImmune, Aviron, or Wyeth are still relevant

APPENDIX C: LIST OF HEALTH CONDITIONS FOR NON-INCLUSION

- cardiac disorders
- pulmonary disorders – for example
  - bronchopulmonary dysplasia,
  - cystic fibrosis
  - asthma
- diabetes mellitus and other metabolic diseases
- cancer
- immune compromising conditions (due to underlying disease and/or therapy) – for example
  - HIV
  - Transplant recipient on immune suppressing medications
- renal disease
- anemia or hemoglobinopathy
- conditions that compromise the management of respiratory secretions and are associated with an increased risk of aspiration
- morbid obesity (BMI≥40)
- children and adolescents with conditions treated for long periods with acetylsalicylic acid